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ABSTRACT

This book describes FIRST (Focussed Instruction in Reading for Successful Teaching) Reading, a computer program that takes answers to 20 questions about a learner and matches this profile against profiles in the database. FIRST Reading, formerly called "Consult Reading," can recommend the most-likely-to-succeed teaching focus(es) for K-12 troubled readers with over 90% accuracy. Chapters in the book are (1) FIRST Reading: A New Look to Teaching; (2) What FIRST Reading Is Not; (3) The FIRST Reading Taxonomy; (4) The Eight Instructional Focuses; (5) Comprehension; (6) Functional Language; (7) Games; (8) Interest; (9) Language Experience; (10) Motivation; (11) Self-Concept; (12) Study Skills; (13) Implementation; and (14) FIRST Reading: Evaluating Affect, Attitude, and Success. Appendixes present the taxonomy, a learner profile sheet, bookbinding procedures, and sample informal interest inventories for grades 1-6 and grades 7-12. (Contains 53 references.) (RS)

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ED 400 507

FIRST Reading

Focussed Instruction in Reading for Successful Teaching

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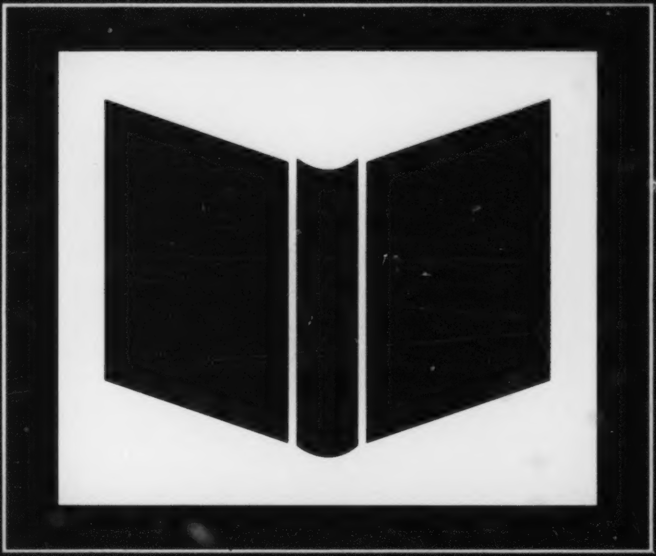

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FIRST READING

Focussed Instruction in Reading for Successful Teaching

Anabel P. Newman
Elizabeth Metz

1996

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We gratefully acknowledge all those who, since 1983, have expressed faith in the possibility of accomplishing what we now present as FIRST Reading.

Most recently, our friend and editor, Warren Lewis's "big picture" mentality buoyed us along when energies flagged. Anabel's husband, Philip Newman, did numerous edits and critiques before the manuscript ever reached Warren. And Kurt Messick, scholar and computer expert, has provided for many years, the technical expertise which pulls a product together.

In prior reports we have more specifically recognized Indiana and Ohio school people – administrators, teachers, and children – who have collaborated with us in building the foundation for FIRST Reading. We continue to be grateful for their participation.

Closer to home we recognize that an institution such as Indiana University is made up of wonderful people, our colleagues, who have trusted us enough to cheer us on over such a long time. We are grateful for their trust.

We are also grateful for our students, who developed the case reports from which we extracted the information that makes an expert system such as FIRST Reading possible.

And a final salute to Dr. Edward Patrick, without whom FIRST Reading would never have gotten off the ground.

With Seneca then we say,

> He who receives a benefit with gratitude
> repays the first installment on his debt.

Our indebtedness, and our intentions to take the next steps with FIRST Reading, certainly do continue. Perhaps this book can be considered the first installment.

Anabel P. Newman, Professor Emerita
Elizabeth Metz, Research Associate

PREFACE

In 1983 the long journey began.

"We know how to effectively teach reading, but we've never gotten the practices harnessed," observed Nicholas Fattu, then Research Professor of Education at Indiana University (Bloomington). With considerable earnestness he urged us to pay attention to a remarkable program engineered by his son, James Fattu, Ph.D., M.D., and colleague Edward Patrick, Ph.D., M.D. – a program called Consult. FIRST Reading (Focussed Instruction in Reading for Successful Teaching), originally designated Consult Reading, a subsystem of Consult, brings to reality for today's reading teacher this remarkable program.

The work of James Fattu and Edward Patrick (one of the initial developers of artificial intelligence in the mid 1960s) resulted in two programs – Outcome Advisor® and Consult® already successfully applied in medicine. Dr. Nicholas Fattu was convinced these programs could be adapted to the teaching of reading – especially for troubled readers.

The first should note that the two names "Consult Reading" and "FIRST Reading" are first and second generations of the same program. When the authors worked with the four Ohio Projects (1991 to 1995) they designated the project as Consult Reading. Dr. Patrick, based in Cincinnati and director of the Patrick Institute, graciously permitted them to use the Consult name linked with Reading, which he and Dr. James Fattu had trademarked, to designate the subsystem developed for working with troubled readers. As Consult Reading evolved into its next generation, the authors felt that it was important to distinguish what the problem actually does, that is, to provide recommendations for Focussed Instruction in Reading for Successful Teaching, thus FIRST Reading.

After years of research, adaptation, and refinement, we are happy to provide FIRST Reading, which, with over ninety percent accuracy, can recommend the most-likely-to-succeed teaching focus(es) for K-12 troubled readers. The program's consistent success in the teaching of reading vindicates Dr. Nicholas Fattu's faith in it. The practices have indeed been "harnessed."

It is now possible for teachers, who have dreamed of a more direct route to instructional success with troubled readers, to take rewarding trips with learners through the use of Consult Reading.

We wish them a *bon voyage*!

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CHAPTER 1

FIRST READING: A NEW LOOK TO TEACHING

What FIRST Reading Is and Does for Teachers

The FIRST Reading teacher-user is a motivated, hard working professional, who desires the best for students. With this as a given, FIRST Reading provides the focus of a good camera, offering a new look, often a joyous confirmation, of what the teacher has already done. It allows freedom and flexibility, promotes creativity, and uses a teacher's knowledge and intuition, while at the same time boosting the capacity to go more quickly to effective instruction.

What teacher has not wished at some time for a means of going directly to that instructional approach best suited to a particular child? Howard Gardner presents a hopeful note for such yearnings as he recognizes a similar hope among educational scholars. He says –

> Educational scholars nonetheless cling to the vision of the optimal match between student and material. In my own view, this tenacity is legitimate: after all, the science of educational psychology is still young; and in the wake of superior conceptualizations and finer measures, the practice of matching the individual learner's profile to the materials and modes of instruction may still be validated. (1983, p. 390)

Instead, as teachers, we still often find ourselves, after months of effort, finally discovering that special focus that turns a child on to learning. FIRST Reading provides that special focus. It is a comprehensive program that matches individual learners having difficulty reading with instructional focuses most-likely-to-succeed in reading. It makes possible consistent recommendations for individualized instruction. Teachers become more effective and efficient, saving time and energy, and avoiding frustration on the part of both teacher and learner. FIRST Reading effects positive change in affect and attitude and helps the learner become a successful reader.

FIRST Reading, a computer program, takes the answers to twenty questions about a learner and matches this profile against those in the knowledge base. After processing, the program recommends the instructional focus(es) most likely to lead to reading success for the learner. In the large number of teacher-directed cases using FIRST Reading recommended focuses, over 90% have shown a positive difference in the reading experience of the learners. These learners, it should be remembered, are children who frequently fall academically in the lower third of a class, who are potential high school dropouts, and who, therefore, may become adult functional illiterates.

After the most-likely-to-succeed focus(es) have been recommended, it is then necessary to discover how they are to be implemented. Prior to publication of this book, these focuses were described in a strategy booklet (Newman & Metz, 1988) herein included in substance as Chapters 5-12. These chapters contain ideas and real-life examples for each of the eight instructional focuses. Appendix C contains informal interest inventories which can help teachers discover the interests of individual learners. Basic interest and reading-level information are assumed to accompany the implementation of the FIRST Reading recommendations.

The Benefits of FIRST Reading to Learners

A primary benefit of using FIRST Reading strategies for instruction is that children learn to enjoy reading. They discover that reading can satisfy an inner longing. In this regard, Darryl Strickler years ago (1977) made this observation:

> The somewhat deplorable state of Americans' reading habits is undoubtedly the result of many factors operating within our society. Perhaps one of the most significant factors is the emphasis our schools have traditionally placed on teaching children how to read. And, while few people would deny the importance of teaching children how to read, children also need to learn why they should read;...(p. 1)
>
> What is needed is a reallocation of the emphasis in teaching reading; a shifting of perspective so that we keep clearly in mind the reason why we teach people how to read: so that they will want to read (p. 2).

Stories such as the ones below illustrate that the how to read must, if reading is to be truly rewarding, embrace the why of reading, that is, a learner's reason for wanting to do so. As the teacher's instruction becomes more focussed, the learner's affect (feelings) and attitude about reading almost naturally improve. Now the learner will want to read, and thus success comes just that much sooner.

Our first story comes from an inner-city third grader in a Columbus, Ohio, school who participated in the FIRST Reading program (formerly Consult Reading). We think her letter, printed below with spelling unchanged, tells the story.

> Dear Indiana,
>
> I think reading is very nice. I have thought reading was going to be boring. But now I know that it is fun to read. I hope you know that we have to know we need reading. My favorite book is Clifford's Manners. That is a nice story. I have learned to read more. I go home and read every day. Thanks you for your help.
>
> Your friend,
> Tiffany

The FIRST Reading program recommended that Tiffany's instructional focus be 56% on interest, 32% on language experience, and 10% on functional language. An informal interest inventory (III) administered to Tiffany revealed her love of cats. The teacher then found books about cats to use with Tiffany during reading instruction. Also, the teacher made special arrangements for Tiffany and other FIRST Reading students to use the school library in the morning if they had a book to return. In addition, the teacher took her class to the public library and saw that each child received a library card. Tiffany kept a list of the books she read. Her mother, who encouraged her daughter's reading at home, verified by her signature that Tiffany had indeed read the books.

Tiffany responded to topics the teacher occasionally assigned and kept a journal about what she read. Keeping a journal allowed the children to record their own experiences. The teacher would comment in writing on each child's journal entries. This activity reflected the recommendation to use a language experience approach (modified to suit the situation) as well as functional language.

Other functional language strategies (see Ch. 6) – letters to parents, thank-you notes to visiting speakers, and reports on field trips – were also employed.

At the beginning of the school year Tiffany would hurry through her work so she could play. At the end of the year she was putting more effort into her work and reading and writing more carefully. Her teacher wrote that Tiffany loved going to the library and keeping a list of what she read. Tiffany even wrote a book about cats which was not part of any assignment. She obviously discovered the how, why, and want of reading as she learned to enjoy choosing books and putting greater effort and care into her work.

Our second story concerns Randy, a fourth grade pupil in a school in the industrial area of Cleveland. As the school year began, Randy seemed to be bitter and resentful, generally indifferent to the teacher's requests. He was not even responsive to his classmates. Because he was a poor reader, his teacher chose him to participate in the FIRST Reading program. His learner profile, when processed by the program, recommended that his instruction focus entirely on interest (99%).

In the fall his teacher, during class time, was unable to get him to be productive in any direction. As Randy sat by himself during recess in the atrium of the school's central library, one FIRST Reading instructor was able to involve him in a discussion about poetry – Randy's only interest according to an earlier conversation with his teacher. The FIRST instructor took him to the chalkboard in the classroom where, together, they composed a twelve-line poem, a written conversation, about their respective childhoods. Randy's teacher was encouraged to follow up on this interest in poetry. Thus, as the fall progressed the teacher used poetry as a means of teaching Randy the why of reading – to help him experience a true reason for reading and writing.

The teacher brought to class the poems of African-American authors. Randy was invited to collect the poems he particularly liked. He was also to write his own poems. At first he was unwilling to share his poems with the class. But within a month he began to do so.

Later in the year Eugene, a fourth grade FIRST student in another class with considerable talent in art, was asked if he would be willing to join with Randy in illustrating some of his poems. Though shy, he agreed. The results, published in the school paper and in the class newsletter, gave both boys a real boost in self-esteem. One of Randy's poems, "A Fool in My School," printed below, was published in the February newsletter.

A fool in my School
Teachers say that he is lazy, but I say he is crazy.
He wears red and brown tennis shoes, and never follows
The school rules.
He always says he is right,
But he is always in a fight.
He will tell a lie before you can bat an eye.
He walks around and acts so cool,
But he is still just the school fool.

His teacher reported that by the middle of the year Randy's attitude had improved and that he had become more cooperative and willing to share his poems with the class. In March Randy wrote:

> I want to become a famous poet. I love to write about things that I see, hear, and people. When I am mad with myself or my friends or teacher for no reason, she will tell me to take out my pencil and pad and write about anything. When I have finished I am no longer mad with anybody. I want my friends and classmates to like me but most of them don't. They say I am angry all the time. I don't want to be angry. Maybe when they read some of my poems they will understand me better.

Randy was indeed learning the why and want of reading. Later in the year, Randy was encouraged to draw pictures and put poems to them. This strategy increased his interest in writing. By the end of the year Randy's teacher reported that his interest in school work – including reading – improved. His relationship with his classmates also improved.

The following essay, written by Randy and published in the May newsletter, demonstrates his ability to express his dreams for a better life – for himself and the world.

My Kind of Neighborhood

Houses that are brightly painted with pretty green grass and flowers. Apartment buildings without broken windows, stores that sell fresh fruit, food and vegetables. School that you could walk to instead of getting up early to catch "old yellow."

> A neighborhood where old people, young people, and children can walk down the street without being threatened by gangs or force[d] to sell drugs by a drug dealer. My kind of neighborhood is where people love[,] respect and treat everyone the same no matter what color they may be.

Randy's is a dramatic success story. Eugene's success, quietly encouraged by his reading teachers, is equally compelling.

When the teacher first saw his drawings she thought they were traced, so meticulous were they in line and detail. She continued, however, to observe Eugene turn out one drawing after another in which proportion, color, and other elements of depiction were carefully worked out. As each picture was completed, he wrote a section of a story to go with it. He eventually completed a small book.

The partnership arranged with Randy offered an outlet in which Eugene could do what he did so well with appreciation, but without undue limelight, which at that time appeared hard for his shy nature to accommodate.

It is encouraging to know that the successes achieved by Tiffany, Randy, and Eugene through the use of FIRST Reading can be achieved with other reluctant readers as well as with those labeled learning disabled. Many other stories have been collected that demonstrate the how, why, and want of reading. The success of these learners influenced the teachers in the next FIRST project who, when asked how use of FIRST affected their students, said they showed improved self-concept, motivation, stability, performance, grades, writing, interest, and attendance. One teacher commented, "[FIRST] helped this learner realize she could experience success" (Newman, Metz, & Patrick, 1993, p. 22). Findings of this sort support the conviction that every child can learn to read and enjoy it.

Observations such as these over many years of using FIRST, have convinced us that these changes usually occur in the order of affect (emotional outlook), attitude (mental or intellectual outlook), and success (see Ch. 13). In documenting these changes in the four Ohio projects, it was found that when there is a significant change in affect and attitude there is a 95% probability that the learner will achieve medium or high success. If, however, there was no improvement in affect and attitude, there was likely to be only a 50% chance of achieving medium or high success (Newman, Metz, & Patrick, 1992, p. 19).

The Benefits of FIRST Reading to Teachers

Qualitative as well as quantitative research over several years has shown that FIRST Reading helps teachers discover how to intelligently develop a teaching approach that efficiently and effectively meets the needs of individual learners. To the new user of FIRST it is startling to see how accurately the program recommends appropriate instructional strategies for each learner. One Columbus teacher used the word "weird" when saying:

> How can this program, which didn't even know this child that I've been trying to get to know all year, predict in the fall, strategies that would be successful with him that I didn't even realize would work with him until well into the spring semester (1992, p. 26).

This program provides not only direction to the experienced or inexperienced teacher but confirmation as well.

The story of Julius, an inner-city first grader from a primary school in Cincinnati, illustrates how FIRST recommendations might have saved the teacher, pupil, and parents from frustration and lost time.

Although Julius's teacher participated in the FIRST Reading program being conducted in her school, she had not included Julius in the target group. From September until March efforts to teach Julius to read were a struggle. The many instructional strategies attempted were unsuccessful. In February the parents were told that Julius would probably have to repeat first grade. It seemed that both teacher and student had failed. Then, in March, the teacher tried one more strategy, and it worked. Julius learned to read! He quickly made up the time lost during the first six months of the school year and was promoted with his class.

At the end of the school year the teacher, wishing to satisfy her curiosity, asked that Julius's taxonomy profile be processed in the FIRST Reading computer program. The program's recommendation (Language Experience, 48% and Interest, 42%) was the same one the teacher used in March! She then realized how much time and frustration could have been avoided had she included Julius in the program at the beginning of the school year. She remarked:

> The proof for me . . . was in the recommendations I received for Julius. . . . I have anguished over this child most of the year trying to reach him and love him, and by March I was finally able to begin making significant progress with him. We're on a roll now and we're making up for a lost six months in a short time. I believe the year would have been different if I'd had the specific strategies and the technology to "focus" my attention [sooner] (1992, p. 24).

Here are further examples of how FIRST Reading has benefited classroom teachers: A new, inexperienced, third-grade male teacher, with a business-school degree, implemented with enthusiasm the FIRST Reading recommendations. His students quickly moved ahead, even those considered learning disabled.

Charles, a FIRST project participant in this teacher's room, is an especially interesting case. Alerted by the program's recommendations of motivation (50%) and language experience (42%), the teacher gave special emphasis to these two recommended focuses for Charles as the class took field trips, engaged in choral reading, participated in oral reading (which in Charles' case involved reading to first grade learners), made personal choices of reading materials, constructed books containing their own writings, and enjoyed uninterrupted sustained silent reading.

These strategies proved to be highly motivational for Charles, focussed as they were on exactly what was most likely to succeed for him. As the school year came to a close, the teacher wrote, "I am very pleased with how Charles has progressed since the start of school!" (May 1992, raw data, unpublished material) Charles blossomed under his teacher's wholehearted implementation of the FIRST recommendations. In fact, this smiling third grader, starting the year with little promise of success, ended by being the star of a sixty-second spot on the nightly local news.

Another teacher, experienced at upper grade levels, decided to switch to teaching first grade. Her buoyantly receptive attitude made it easy for her to succeed with FIRST Reading. She commented: "I'll never go back to how I used to teach." (1992, p. 30)

A third-grade teacher also found her instructional approach changing, and she wished this to continue. One day she asked a member of the visiting FIRST Reading team to show her how to be a more "modern" teacher. She wanted to break out of her old mold and become more flexible in her teaching and more responsive to her learners.

As FIRST Reading was used over time in various classrooms, it was found that the teachers who were willing – even eager – to change, to become flexible and responsive to individual children, were the most successful. Although the initial investment of time spent in developing the right application of a specific recommendation may seem high, the long-term benefits will be cost effective. One accurate application is worth more than several near misses, however well intentioned.

Almost always a wonderful side effect of using FIRST in a school is that the teachers begin to talk to each other – they share their experiences, knowledge, and questions – about what is occurring with their students. A veteran Cleveland teacher who realized that good things were happening in the classroom next door where FIRST was being used, wished to bring these possibilities to his class. Later this teacher had a long discussion with the visiting FIRST team about current developments in the field of education. In fact, all the teachers appreciating this developing link and peer support with other teachers in similar situations, began to expand their views of education – to reach out for new ideas. It is important to realize that while many strategies recommended by FIRST are not necessarily new to teachers, the program shows them how to use these strategies more effectively. One teacher said,

> I think I have become more proficient in the teaching of reading. The ideas are very useful and it is very important to concentrate on the individual learner. I am now able to use processes that I have already learned and add the new techniques from the program to my repertoire (1993, p. 17).

The best rewards, of course, come from "smiles on faces of children that had never been there before" because of positive attitudes gained about reading and loving it – of no longer needing to struggle to learn to read or fearing failure one more time (1993, p. 89). A surprising development with teachers was their discovery that the most effective instruction involves knowing a learner's interests. In a recent project with FIRST, 92% of the teachers identified this awareness as significant to the success of the project (Newman, Metz, & Patrick, 1994, p. 43).

One teacher wrote:

> I am using more visual displays, games, tables, graphs, charts, and pictures. I do more things in reading that are interesting to the children. In many cases my children understood more when they were interested in a topic (1992, p. 15).

However, many teachers beset with a multitude of classroom demands on time and resources, often resort to commercially prepared and impersonal materials rather than follow the perhaps more time consuming leadings of a child's interests. The power of appealing to a child's interests, however, is undeniable and has been carefully documented in Newman's longitudinal studies (1978, 1980, 1985). Additional references to the significance of interest in instruction are Eller (1969), Durkin (1966), Spache (1974), and Harris and Sipay (1985). In Newman's 1980 study, interest as an interacting variable with sex, intelligence, comprehension, achievement, and attitude was considered, while in 1985 she explored findings of studies examining teacher-versus-student choices (McLaughlin, 1976) and the most productive means of courting and enriching student interests (Sevener, 1983). All these studies underlined the strength and importance of attention to learner interest as instruction proceeds.

In the 1993 Ohio Consult [FIRST] project the teachers were asked to establish goals for themselves (p. 8, pp.15-17). The teachers in the 1994 Ohio project were asked to establish goals for their learners (pp. 10-12). In the 1995 project they established goals for the learners and themselves (p.12). It is well recognized in education that establishing a goal sets a target that is more likely to be reached than otherwise, thus confirming the old saw, "If you don't know where you're going, you'll never get there." Ninety-nine percent of the teachers who set a goal got there. The goals for one teacher in the 1993 project were:

1. To develop appropriate tactics for improving students' reading abilities, and
2. To experiment with efficient teaching practices to use with slower learning and reading students.

At the end of the project this teacher wrote:

> I was able to successfully stimulate the learners. . . . I was able to successfully use uninterrupted silent sustained reading for the entire class including the teacher. One learner wrote and illustrated his own book!
>
> First we have to break through the barriers of environment and family strife. Consult Reading helped me do this. I was directed to such things as interest, games, language experience, functional language, motivation, and self-concept. Once you have broken the barriers, you can teach in a more efficient way (1992, p. 15).
>
> The learners came to know success and how to attain it. There is a joy in knowing and seeing the changes you can bring to the lives of your students (1992, p. 16).

In the 1994 project one teacher set as her goal, "The learner will be able to enjoy reading in a number of ways and see the success they have made through the school year." At the end of the project she said "I'm proud to say that my objectives were met with all my students. It made me proud and glad to see the learners' progress and to see the improvement shown" (p. 10). In the spirit of fulfilling these goals, one teacher noted that "the Consult project activities helped me zoom in on areas of specific problems that stumped me" (1993, p. 16).

> Another teacher recognized the delight of the children as she described how they played. . . games together. . . . We had small, little snowmen, ice cream cones, skates, etc. The students dictated sentences to me. Then they read them to me. You should have seen the expressions on their faces. They were overjoyed (1993, p. 15).

The Benefits of FIRST Reading to Parents

The benefits of FIRST Reading to learners and teachers, as discussed above, work to the advantage of parents as well. Children who are happier, more satisfied, and more productive with their performance in school cannot help being a blessing to their parents. They are usually gratified to find their children actively and joyfully engaged in following a favorite interest rather than see them trudge laboriously and repetitively through impersonal generic materials, or watch them participate in the latest trend in reading instruction which may or may not be of direct benefit to their child.

One young mother of a first grader participating in the FIRST project was so thrilled with what had happened to her son, that she brought a video camera to school so she could document the results!

Others have enthusiastically participated in parent-child read-togethers in the school library under the direction of the librarian. Several teachers reported how parents have, with their children, initiated frequent visits to the town library.

When responding to the taxonomy questions during an interview, often a mother is alerted to a new idea that she can pursue with her child at home. These mothers are hungry for ideas which they themselves can carry out. Sometimes a productive link can be forged between school and home when teachers ask parents to verify the completion of assignments (of reading with, listening to, or observing children read) by signing a chart documenting that the youngsters have spent a certain number of reading-related minutes.

Use of FIRST Reading is not confined to the classroom. One mother, having heard of the activities of the Reading Practicum Center at Indiana University, Bloomington, called from Chicago to ask if they could help her son. She said her son, who was bright and learned quickly at home, was failing in school, to the despair of his teachers. The distance between Bloomington and Chicago seemed to preclude face-to-face meetings. However, during the course of several telephone discussions – an initial call describing the situation, a follow-up call providing information for the taxonomy, mid-semester sharings, and the final call which cited the semester's victories for her son – the FIRST recommendations made it possible for the boy to function comfortably at his proper grade level. The mother, who had a teaching background, readily grasped the appropriateness of the recommendations and knew how to apply them. She was overjoyed at the results.

Similar opportunities closer to Bloomington of working with parents outside the classroom, either in personal interviews or by telephone (often involving graduate students in the Practicum Center reading program) have yielded fruitful results. In one case a Practicum Center member successfully counseled monthly with a mother –explaining to her how to implement the FIRST recommendations at home. The FIRST approach and results were shared with the child's teacher.

Because parents usually know their children better than anyone else, and because they can be committed over time to the well being and academic progress of their children, it is to the parents' advantage to be able to identify early the focuses most likely to benefit their children. Although use of FIRST Reading can be of help at any age level, it has been found that early focus identification can produce consistently positive outcomes.

CHAPTER 2

WHAT FIRST READING IS NOT

When introducing FIRST Reading to teachers, some may say "FIRST is a lot like Learning Styles," or "You mean FIRST will help me diagnose learner needs," or even "FIRST is not different from Whole Language." Some clarification is needed.

FIRST Reading Is Not a Medical Model

The parent computer program, FIRST, was developed by two medical doctors using a carefully built database to diagnose physical problems and prescribe treatments. FIRST as applied to teaching reading does not do this. This has been a difficult distinction for many users to understand. The natural tendency is to assume that FIRST Reading recommendations reveal a need or weakness that must be remedied. But, as explained in Chapter 1, this is not the case. A recommendation of motivation (60%) and interest (35%) does not mean that the learner is unmotivated or lacking in interests. What it does mean is that, as with similar learners, focussing on motivational activities and learner interests will prove successful over 90 percent of the time. This point cannot be over emphasized. Thus, the recommendations provided by FIRST Reading do suggest most-likely-to-succeed strategies or focusses. They do not offer a specific pill for a specific problem.

In teaching reading, using the recommendations of FIRST Reading, even given its powerful possibilities (using a carefully built data-base), basic knowledge on the part of the user is assumed. What are the interests of the learner (gained through an Informal Interest Inventory, III)? What is the learner's approximate reading level? What is the level of effectiveness of the reader?

The Reading Practicum Center collected this information through administering an IRI (Informal Reading Inventory) and an RMI (*Reading Miscue Inventory*, Goodman & Burke, 1972). Although FIRST users may not be familiar with these instruments, they can approximate the information the instruments provide. Classroom teachers usually will be aware of general reading level. They will know, for example, if the reader is simply struggling to keep up with classmates or is hopelessly behind. Parents or others working with the learner should be able to get this information from the teachers.

Effectiveness of the reader refers to comprehension. How well does the learner comprehend what he is reading? Does he understand what he has read even though he may miscue on some words or phonic elements?

The teacher then applies the FIRST Reading recommendations which take into account sex, age, and broad cultural, physiological, and psychological characteristics.

For an eighth grader, writing directions for fixing a bicycle might be the most appropriate application for the recommendation Functional Language. For a seventeen-year-old, however, rewriting sections of the Driver's Manual might be a more appropriate expression for the same recommendation of Functional Language. Thus, FIRST Reading strengthens the role of the teacher by providing a more substantial opening position.

For many years the diagnostic process in reading has used a variety of measures to determine learner status. Consider one extreme in which a university professor trained her students to administer twenty-four measures for each child so the student might know which test or inventory to use. Pity the learners who must have felt they were abject failures if so many measures were needed to discover their reading ability!

By contrast, the early examination of troubled readers at the Reading Practicum Center began with an III to identify learner interests. An IRI followed to determine a learner's approximate reading level. After this, an RMI was administered to qualitatively assess reading efficiency. During this process, clinicians were taught to read and write with learners, observe closely what motivates them, and consider their cultural, physiological, psychological, and educational characteristics. This approach tended to produce case reports with a breadth of vision that improved the direction of instruction. It is from these carefully documented case reports that the data base for FIRST Reading was developed.

These Practicum Center procedures, while identifying misread sight words, questions missed, or unknown phonic elements, did not follow the model of diagnosis leading to treatment. Diagnosis leading to treatment usually means finding what is wrong with a patient or situation. One diagnoses a problem in order to decide how to solve it. But when the power of FIRST Reading became available at the RPC, it meant that rather than accumulate a list of symptoms which might suggest need (treatment), the instructor was provided recommendations of most-likely-to-succeed strategies. This made it possible to leapfrog much of the heretofore accepted diagnostic practices and go immediately to the most-likely-to-succeed procedure. This is indeed a powerful difference from the medical model in which symptoms suggest prescriptions.

Tackling the Problem of Inconsistent Diagnosis

Some years ago Vinsonhaler, et al. (1983), in a series of six studies, identified a problem that has plagued reading clinicians over the years, that is, the problem of inconsistent diagnosis. The studies disclose that –

> Mean diagnostic agreement between two clinicians remained close to 0.0 across the six studies. Mean diagnostic agreement for a single clinician diagnosing the same case twice remained close to 0.20 across the six studies. In a study of remediation, the results for individual remedial agreement were similar to those for diagnosis. Further, remediations appeared to be uncorrelated with diagnosis (p. 134).

John McEneaney's software program, Teacher's Aide-Plan, an expert system, provides a guide and support tool for preservice (current use) and inservice (possible eventual application) professional decision making. It gets at the problem of inconsistent diagnosis with a strategy-centered approach. It leads the user through the basic getting-to-know process to a planning module in which the user plugs in choices about a strategy (assuming basic on-hand information about the learner including results of an III, an IRI, and learner in-class functioning). These choices ask the user to decide whether he will strengthen a weakness, or build on a strength, for Instructional Emphasis (remediation should emphasize print or meaning processing); Instructional Phase (my instructional program will emphasize background..., active engagement..., or summarization....); Response Mode (my student will most benefit from a program that emphasizes discussion or writing); and so forth. The last five decision areas explore Reasoning Strategies, Skill Areas, Source of Information, Type of Instruction, and Cognitive Processing (McEneaney, Remedial Methods worksheet, E341/X400, 9/94).

These choices eventuate in numbered responses to 58 strategies extracted from Barbara Walker's book, Diagnostic Teaching of Reading: Techniques for Instruction and Assessment (1992), with the higher numbers more closely matching the instructional decisions entered by the user. For example, in processing a client with Teacher's Aide-Plan, high scores (on a scale of 1-10) came out

Recommended Strategies	Score	Walker References
Strategy Instruction	9	p. 237
Story Maps	7	p. 233
Reciprocal Teaching	6	p. 211
Repeated Readings	6	p .213
Self-directed Questions	6	p. 233
Sustained Silent Reading	6	p. 241

Such fine-tuned strategy recommendations provide the user with an array of specific "best strategy choices" to try out.

In contrasting FIRST Reading with TA-Plan, one major difference is that TA-Plan directs the decision maker to specific, skill-based strategies within an array of 58 possibilities, whereas FIRST Reading recommends a percentage-weighted ballpark in which, if you play, you are likely to have over 90% success with a given reader. Developed primarily as a teacher training tool, TA-Plan thus does not supply likelihood of success. It does introduce prospective teachers to a broad array of skills, but is oriented toward learner need rather than what will be most successful with a learner.

Reading Styles

The pioneer work of Katherine and Stanley Dunn (1978), and more recently, Marie Carbo (1980), have brought forcibly to the attention of educators the recognition that learners often exhibit distinctly different stylistic preferences for taking in information. Billy is more likely to react positively (understand better and remember longer) to material that is presented to him visually. Shelly loves to hear stories read aloud and is more likely to follow directions accurately if she reads them aloud to herself. Jason, who might be called a kinesthetic learner, succeeds more readily when all his senses are engaged.

How teachers provide direction to these different children can be crucial to their learning process. Billy needs to have written directions as a ready reference. Shelly profits from an occasional aural prompting from the teacher. Jason may like to write out directions for himself, have a visual list or chart for reference, and be able to talk out some directions as he proceeds.

There are, of course, those learners who easily balance modalities and move flexibly from one to another according to the task, thus suggesting it is important not to classify a student too rigidly. Sensitive, observant teachers often recognize the value of introducing tasks in a variety of modes so the learner will begin to accommodate a broader repertoire of modalities.

The strength of Learning Styles, then, is its identification and attention to preferred modality, i.e., preference for means of taking in information for a particular learner – based on the assumption that this attention will enhance learning. Thus Learning, and more specifically, Reading Styles is about how people learn best, rather than about a most-likely-to-succeed strategy or focus which FIRST Reading is able to provide through tapping into its extensive knowledge base for teaching reading.

Reading Recovery

Reading Recovery, an intensive reading program for first graders, was developed by New Zealand educator Marie Clay (1985). Now widely disseminated in the United States, as well as in Australia, Britain, the United Kingdom, and Canada (Center, et al.,1995) it involves an intensive training period for participating teachers, followed by a 12- to 16-week tutoring program for participating children.

Activities presented in the following order, form the core of the program –

1. Rereading of two or more familiar books;
2. Rereading yesterday's new book and recording learner progress (e.g., materials read, miscue analysis, and difficulties noted);
3. Letter identification, if needed;
4. Transcribing a story the child dictates (emphasis on hearing sounds in words);
5. Rearranging a cut-up story;
6. Introducing a new book; and
7. Attempting to read the new book (Clay, 1985, p. 56).

Striking similarities exist between Clay's model and the work of the Cedar Rapids/University of Iowa First and Second Grade Studies (Reid & Beltramo, 1965; Reid, Beltramo, Newman & Muehl, 1966) – especially the emphasis on using little books and integrating reading and writing. Seasoned and wise educator that he was, Hale Reid insisted that the Iowa first grade study work with so-called low-group readers, those first graders who normally constitute the lower third of a class. Drawing on the experiences of 25 years as director of elementary education in Cedar Rapids, Reid observed that the low-group children, those most likely to fail later in the system, should receive special attention in first grade. "The middle- and high-group children will make it," he said, "it's the low group that we need to work extra hard with." And so, the Iowa first-grade study, one of the 27 First Grade Studies, worked with 405 low-group first graders from 51 classrooms. Ironically, the results of the study were not included in the Bond & Dykstra (1967) report because the Cedar Rapids population was not the same as those in the other first grade studies. Fortunately for posterity, many of the successful practices discovered and included in the Cedar Rapids study have been incorporated in Clay's model known as Reading Recovery. The expense, however, of using Reading Recovery in training teachers to work individually with first graders needing help, is prohibitively high for many school systems.

> It was found that Reading Recovery leads to learning. Students make greater than expected gains in reading. It is less effective and more costly than has been claimed, and does not lead to systemic changes in classroom instruction making it difficult to maintain learning gains. This is discouraging given program claims and its great expense (Shanahan & Barr, 1995, pp. 958-996).

How do Reading Recovery and FIRST Reading differ? Reading Recovery focuses on first graders only. FIRST Reading is currently available for K-12 learners. Reading Recovery specifies a prescribed format for daily instruction. FIRST Reading recommends most-likely-to-succeed focus(es) provided by reference to its knowledge base of similar learners who have achieved success. Reading Recovery demands extensive, and thus expensive, teacher training. FIRST Reading can be provided to teachers and other users in cost effective packages depending upon the situation.

Trial Lessons

Jeanne Chall, Professor Emerita, Harvard University, and noted reading educator, in describing with Mary Curtis insights and procedures used in the Harvard Reading Laboratory in Cambridge, Mass., notes that "trial lessons," after testing is completed,

> are brief teaching sessions during which teachers try out different methods of instruction to see which approaches are most successful with their students. (p. 786)

It is this trial process that led Dr. Nicholas Fattu, outstanding mid-century educational researcher and father of FIRST developer, James Fattu, to urge the use of the programs Outcome Advisor, and FIRST,. His perception was that these programs offered the potential of pulling together in a meaningful and useful way the many solutions that exist which heretofore have been untapped simply because they are so splayed across the field.

Using FIRST Reading is not trial and error. And not only do applications of the FIRST Reading recommendations point directly to a most-likely-to-succeed procedure, but they usually salvage what remains of a learner's positive self-concept. Learners are more likely to be successful right away than after a series of trial probes.

Whole Language

Whole Language proponents eschew definitions. ". . . the children and I must continuously redefine what we need to know. And what we know today may not hold true tomorrow." (Susan Ohanian in Whole Language: The Debate, moderated by Carl B. Smith, ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading, English, and Communication and EDINFO Press, Bloomington, IN, 1994, p. 14). Nevertheless, some have attempted to offer a definition:

> Whole Language is a concept that embodies both a philosophy of language development and the instructional approaches embedded within, and supportive of, that philosophy. This concept includes the use of real literature and writing in the context of meaningful, functional, and cooperative experiences in order to develop in students motivation and interest in learning. (Bergeron, 1990, p. 319)

Bergeron analyzed journal articles pertaining to Whole Language instruction in elementary classrooms to arrive at this definition. She found that descriptions and definitions varied through the literature, as did school- and university-based authors' perceptions (Smith, ibid., p. 192).

Despite these differences, it appears that Whole Language embodies the desire to avoid fragmentation and rigidity in reading instruction. Flowering in the past twenty years or so, the movement has taken a strong stand against the hold that basal-reader instruction seems to exercise over the field. Standardized tests are also eschewed. For a variety of reasons – economic and political as well as educational – State Departments of Education have "adopted" for the whole state one or more basal series. Teachers are then required to follow basal-reader instruction rather than follow their own perceptions of what would constitute the most effective instruction for a given situation. This perceived curbing of teacher initiative and independence, and the curtailment of broad student experience with literature, whether actual or not, has been accompanied by educators espousing emphasis on a broader inclusion of literature, a greater emphasis on integrating writing with reading, and an exclusion of phonics, characterized by Jerome Harste as "phonicating" (personal conversation, 1995). As Michael Pressley says –

> I suspect that I'm in a 99 and 44/100% pure Whole Language classroom when there are both (a) authentic literacy events occurring, including reading and discussion of excellent literature as well as writing, and (b) little or no isolated skills instruction (Smith, ibid., 1994, p. 161).

Whole Language may thus be characterized as a philosophic stance which strives to keep the learner's language and experience integrated rather than fragmented or segmented into discrete learning blocks.

In the original resolutions for a Whole Language debate (Smith, ibid., 1994), the Whole Language side resolved:

> We believe that in our democratic society Whole Language principles and the pedagogy of some advocates offer us a better opportunity than do traditional approaches to develop active, literate citizens.... Literacy is a cultural, social, aesthetic, historical, emotional, and political, as well as psychological effort after meaning (p. xix).

One Whole Language conference participant, Susan Ohanian, describes successes in reaching her students using Whole Language approaches, but she also describes two 7th grade students, Bob and Keith, whom she does not reach. She blames the failure with Bob on the fact that "Bob believed so strongly in the 'otherness' of reading: He thought that the teachers, the professor, the skills could do it for him. He never learned to believe in himself or books." (p. 7). About Keith she says:

> Because my students knew that my definition of reading begins with sitting alone with a book, Keith had spent one and a half years in my class faking his way through 138 National Geographics, assorted novels, and a complete set of World Book Encyclopedia (p. 7).

Finally, out of frustration when "he started his perpetual whine that 'there's nothing to read'," she found a book that caught his interest, Dr. Seuss's Hop on Pop. Ohanian felt that if these boys had spent less time answering questions on worksheets in previous classes and more time with books, they would have become readers long before.

How might the situation have differed with FIRST Reading? Recommended focuses for instruction would have been available to the teacher within minutes after providing answers to the twenty questions on the FIRST Reading taxonomy. These recommendations would have been provided taking into account the student's characteristics rather than the teacher's orientation or definition of reading. And the recommendations would have provided the most-likely-to-succeed focus more than 90 percent of the time! Many months of teacher and student frustration might have been avoided. The student might have gained the ability to read far beyond the demands of Hop on Pop.

Pressley comments that "students' individual differences in interest are largely ignored in Whole Language, despite claims of honoring student choice" (p. 165). He says that this is due to the "incredibly heavy emphasis on literature rather than content-area reading" (p. 165), such as science related materials.

FIRST Reading preeminently honors individual differences, for along with a second problem identified by Pressley – "neglect of individual differences in student responsivity to whole language instruction" (p. 166) – FIRST Reading takes into consideration student differences in a way that no other program that is not knowledge-based can. It neither ignores nor neglects these differences, but rather provides recommendations based on what actually works with children who have similar characteristics. Individual children are matched with individual recommendations of focus(es) of instruction. These recommendations, in concert with an emphasis on the individual child's interests, proved successful in 94% of the cases processed and followed in a recent school year in an inner-city Cincinnati school.

Summary

The preceding synopses highlight current theories and practices that have either been confused with FIRST Reading or might easily be so confused. Although there are, or could be, overlaps between FIRST Reading and

Diagnosis and Prescription,
Learning/Reading Styles,
Reading Recovery,
Teacher's Aide-Plan, or
Whole Language,

contrasts are drawn in this chapter with each. Also, the chapter differentiates between FIRST Reading and the conventional medical model of diagnosis and prescription. And it most certainly, shows that FIRST Reading is NOT trial and error.

CHAPTER 3

THE FIRST READING TAXONOMY

Introduction

Now that what FIRST Reading is and is not has been discussed, it is time to show how the program can be used to help teachers become more efficient and effective in their instruction and the learners more successful.

Four steps are necessary in the use of FIRST Reading: (1) complete the learner profile, (2) process the profile data in the computer program, (3) implement with the learner the instructional focuses recommended by the program, and (4) continue, as instruction proceeds, to assess and evaluate learner progress. The first two steps are covered in this chapter; the next two in chapters 4-14.

A major premise followed at the Reading Practicum Center is that to be efficient and effective the teacher or tutor must know the whole learner: his cultural background, physiological and psychological characteristics, and his educational experiences and their impact.

A learner's cultural heritage, be it meager or rich, reflects the behavior patterns, beliefs, attitudes, interactions, exposure to the arts, religious convictions (if any), education, economic and social positions, of parents and other family members, as well as the learner's own educational and out-side-the home experiences. This mix of influences – tangible and otherwise – bears directly on a learner's ability to read (Harris & Sipay, 1980). In fact, after the computer-guided winnowing of many possible profile questions (explained below), half the remaining twenty concern a learner's cultural development.

These questions include position of learner in relation to siblings (Q1), level of mother's and father's education (Q2, Q3), father's occupation (Q4), impact of father's and mother's cultural qualities on learner (Q5, Q6), impact of Father's and mother's interactions with learner (Q7, Q8), reading to learner by parents or surrogate before school (Q10), and negative impact of selected cultural pressures (Q17).

Significantly, socio-economic status (SES) did not survive the profile refinement process. We say "significantly" because past studies have shown SES to correlate positively with school achievement, a finding that could be discouraging to financially poor families with talented children.

The only physiological profile question to survive the refining is the learner's age. In addition to the profile results the teacher may feel that checking into possible sight and hearing problems is advisable.

Questions that survived regarding a learner's psychological characteristics involve motivation (Does he respond to positive external motivation? Is he self-motivated?), pressure (Is there positive home, or other, pressure?), interests (What are the learner's hobbies or out-of-school activities?) Six of the twenty profile questions center around these issues.

The substance of these questions pertains to learner's reading habits (Q11), creativity (Q15), curiosity (Q16), personality traits (Q18), values which motivate learner (Q19), and values which exert pressure on learner (Q20).

Intelligence quotients (IQ), although respected and usually highly correlated with school achievement (Newman & Lohnes, 1975; Borg & Gall, 1983; Pearson, 1984), were not part of the basic diagnostic information gathered at the Reading Practicum Center. In Newman's longitudinal study (1978), IQ washed out as a predictive variable by the time the original low-group first graders reached ninth grade.

Three profile questions involve the learner's educational development: What is his favorite school subject (Q12)? What is his reading comprehension level (Q13)? What is his listening level (Q14)?

Listening level is derived from an informal reading inventory (IRI). It is the level where the learner can listen and comprehend material read aloud to him. This is significant because it suggests abilities beyond what is displayed when the learner is asked to read print material. Thus, if listening level is higher than instructional reading level, the learner needs fluency in handling print rather than conceptual development. By contrast, if the listening level is lower than the instructional reading level, as determined by the IRI, it means that comprehension should receive strong emphasis.

Step One: Completion of Learner Profile

Many years' work went into developing the learner profile. The original profile contained 94 questions thought to impact a child's ability to learn to read. These questions were developed from personal research and experience, through a search of the literature, and input from experts in the field. As the knowledge base of learners grew, it was determined that some of the original questions did not differentiate between children who were successful in the Reading Practicum Center reading program and those who were not. These questions were dropped from the profile until only twenty remained.

Note that while there are nine possible answers for the twenty questions, nine are not always used. For example, fewer than nine responses are needed to answer these questions: Was the learner read to before school (Q10)? What is the learner's listening level (Q13)? Is comprehension a strength (Q14)?

One's best judgment is necessary in selecting an answer to each question. Where possible, the teacher may want to seek assistance from a parent or guardian. Do not guess. The answers will guide the computer through its hyperspace to find the cluster or clusters of learners most like the learner being processed. An expert system depends on expert judgment. The more accurate the answers, the more appropriate will be the recommended instructional focuses.

The guiding principle to follow in choosing an answer is "which one of these responses has the greatest impact on the learner?" Often there is more than one possible answer. The final choice, however, must, in one response, reflect the greatest impact on the learner.

Some questions concern the mother and father of the learner. If the learner's biological parents are not in the child's life, contact whomever is taking their place: stepparents, grandparents, foster parents, aunts, uncles, or friends. If there is no such figure in the child's life, the response to the question is number 9, "no evidence."

Likewise, in instances where there is some, but not enough evidence to judge the answer to a question, the teacher should choose number 8, "not able to judge." Although answers to as many questions as possible are desirable, the options, "not able to judge," or "no evidence," are preferable to guessing. Unlike traditional teaching in which it is often better to guess than leave a blank, with FIRST Reading guessing diminishes the system's accuracy or expert judgment.

When a parental surrogate, say an aunt or grandmother, has cared for the child part of the time, judgments will be needed as to which person has had the greatest impact. The user may want to ask "Who is the current caregiver?" "How long has this person been involved with the child?" This is when the expert judgment of teacher or tutor – whomever is responsible for completing the profile – must come into play.

In the following explanation of how a learner profile is developed, Bill, a high school freshman in a class for the learning disabled and reading at a first grade level, was chosen as an example. Usually Bill was absent from class one to three days a week. However, after only five months of individual biweekly tutoring through the Reading Practicum Center program, Bill was reading at a third grade level, attending school regularly, and asking for extra sessions.

Taxonomy questions and possible responses. In each of the 20 questions below up to nine options are provided. The user chooses the one option which in his or her best judgment reflects the greatest impact on the learner. To fill out the taxonomy the user enters the response number on the Learner Profile sheet. (See Appendix A for a complete copy of the Taxonomy and Learner Profile.)

Question 1. What place does the learner hold in relation to siblings?

1. Oldest child
2. Middle child
3. Youngest child
4. Only child
5. Twin or multiple children
8. Not able to judge
9. No evidence

The answer to this question is usually straightforward except in the case of twins or other multiples. The teacher must decide if being a twin or a multiple has greater impact on the learner than being, for example, a middle child. Bill was the middle child with an older and younger brother. Number 2 was chosen.

Question 2. What level of education has the learner's mother completed?

1. Eighth grade or less
2. Ninth through less than twelfth grade
3. High school diploma or GED
4. Some college, vocational, or specialist training
5. College degree
6. Currently attending school
8. Not able to judge
9. No evidence

This is the first of several questions about the learner's parents. While some teachers may feel uncomfortable in obtaining this type of information, it has been found that most parents are eager to help their child succeed and, therefore, are willing to answer questions once the purpose is explained.

The answer to this question, as with number 1, is usually easy to decide. Bill's mother was a high school graduate, so the answer was number 3.

Question 3. What level of education has the learner's father completed?

1. Eighth grade or less
2. Ninth through less than twelfth grade
3. High school diploma or GED
4. Some college, vocational, or specialist training
5. College degree
6. Currently attending school
7. Not able to judge

8. No evidence

Except that it concerns the father, this question is similar to question 2. In Bill's case, the response was number 1, since his father completed only through the fifth grade.

Question 4. What type of occupation does the learner's father have?

1. Unskilled
2. Skilled
3. Highly skilled
4. Management
5. Professional
6. Househusband
7. Student
8. Not able to judge
9. No evidence

As one proceeds through the rest of the questions, it should be noted that only the father's occupation is considered. Mother's occupation was included in the original proposed taxonomy questions, but this information did not help differentiate between learners who succeeded and those who did not. Therefore, data about the mother's occupation was dropped from the final list of questions.

Most responses to this question are easily answered, but some occupational possibilities are included as a guide in filling in numbers 1-3:

1. Unskilled: garbage collector, custodian
2. Skilled: factory line worker, salesperson
3. Highly skilled: electrician, plumber, mechanic

Bill's father, whose occupation was repairing old model cars at his home, was unable to learn how to repair newer models because his reading level was very low. Thus his poor reading ability kept him from becoming highly skilled in his field. The answer to this question, therefore, is number 2.

Question 5. Which of the following cultural qualities of the learner's father have the greatest impact on the learner?

1. Education/positive
2. Education/negative
3. Occupation/positive
4. Occupation/negative
5. Cannot read/negative

6. Reads to child/positive
7. Reading model/positive
8. Not able to judge
9. No evidence

This question is best answered by responding to each of the three areas of influence – education, occupation, reading – separately. That is, contrast the possibilities within each response area, select the most accurate answer for each, then decide which of the three appears to have had the greatest impact on the learner. The following illustrates how this reasoning might go:

Bill's father completed his education only to the fifth grade. He felt he could provide for his family without further education and that Bill could do the same. Thus, in the area of education, the answer for Bill would be 2, "education/negative."

While Bill's father appeared to have a decent business, his business declined as his ability to maintain access to older model cars diminished. Even so, Bill's father kept pushing him to quit school and help him in his business. Thus, in the area of occupation, the answer for Bill would be 4, "occupation/negative."

Bill's father read very little, and he saw no need for better reading skills for himself or Bill. Since none of the three response possibilities in the area of reading (Nos. 5-7) applies to Bill, a direct choice in reading for Bill is not possible.

Therefore, in responding to this question, the choice that appears to have had the greatest influence on Bill, and the choice to record on the profile, would be 4, "occupation/negative."

Question 6. Which of the following cultural qualities of the learner's mother have the greatest impact on the learner?

1. Education/positive
2. Education/negative
3. Occupation/positive
4. Occupation/negative
5. Cannot read/negative
6. Reads to child/positive
7. Reading model/positive
8. Not able to judge
9. No evidence

Since this question for the mother is the same as question 5 for the father, the same procedure should be followed. Choose an answer for each response area and then determine which answer has the greatest impact on the learner.

Bill's mother did not work outside the home, so neither numbers 3 nor 4 applied to Bill. Unlike his father, Bill's mother loved to read, particularly books. She also read to Bill. But in some ways this was a negative for him because she read his assignments to him and did not encourage him to do so. Nevertheless, since Bill was so aware of his mother's reading ability, the response choice for this question would be 7, "reading model/positive."

> Question 7. Which of the following interactions between learner and father have the greatest impact on the learner?

1. Working together/positive
2. Playing together/positive
3. Cultural, educational, organizational activities/positive
4. Cultural, educational, organizational activities/negative
8. Not able to judge
9. No evidence

This question concerns the interaction between learner and father in three areas: work; play; and cultural, educational, and organizational activities. Work activities would include working together on a job, around the house, doing chores, etc. Play would include sports, games, camping, fishing, hunting, etc. Cultural, educational, and organizational activities would include concerts, plays, visiting a museum, scouts, and 4H club. Note that these activities could have a negative as well as a positive impact on a learner.

Bill and his father spent a lot of time working together in the father's business. They did little else together. Bill enjoyed working in his father's business, and thus this activity was considered to have had a positive impact on Bill. The choice for this question, therefore, would be 1, "working together/positive."

> Question 8. Which of the following interactions between learner and mother have the greatest impact on the learner?

1. Working together/positive
2. Playing together/positive
3. Cultural, educational, organizational activities/positive
4. Cultural, educational, organizational activities/negative
8. Not able to judge
9. No evidence

This question is similar to number 7 except it concerns interaction between learner and mother. Bill spent a lot of time helping his mother around the house. His desire was to make things easier for her. Thus, as with the father, the response for Bill would be number 1, "working together/positive."

Question 9. How old is the learner?

1. 5 - 6 years old
2. 7 - 8 years old
3. 9 - 10 years old
4. 11 - 12 years old
5. 13 - 14 years old
6. 15 - 16 years old
7. 17 - 18 years old
8. Not able to judge
9. No evidence

Response to this question is easy to select. Bill was 15 years old when he began the program, so number 6, "15 - 16 years old," would be selected.

Question 10. Did the learner's parent(s), or surrogate, read to the learner before he/she entered school?

1. Yes, parent(s) read to child regularly
2. No, parent(s) did not read to child regularly
8. Not able to judge
9. No evidence

This question is best answered by the parents. There may have been circumstances, however, when a relative or friend read to the child, or that the child can remember times when someone read to him more or less regularly. Bill's mother said she read to him regularly before he began school. Number 1, "yes, parent(s) read to child regularly," is the right response for Bill.

Question 11. What are the learner's reading habits?

1. Does not read
2. Reads only for survival (street signs, labels, etc.)
3. Reads only what is required (for survival and school)
4. Reads only school related material
5. Reads only what interests him/her
6. Reads regularly
8. Not able to judge
9. No evidence

The teacher can answer this question by observing the learner in the classroom, and through asking the parents or others – as discussed above – about the children's reading habits at home. Response number 1, "does not read," does not necessarily mean the learner cannot read. It can mean the learner does not choose to read.

Response number 2, "reads only for survival," includes two examples relating to survival: (1) The ability to read labels, say, on prescription drugs and cleaning supplies, can be the difference between life and death. (2) Being able to read road and street signs can also affect one's survival.

Response number 3, "reads only what is required," combines responses 2 and 4. If the learner reads for both survival and school, response number 3 should be chosen. Bill read only what was required. His mother usually read his assignments to him. Therefore, number 3 would be the overall response for Bill.

Question 12. What is the learner's favorite school subject?

1. English
2. Social studies
3. Mathematics
4. Reading
5. Health and physical education
6. Home economics or shop
7. Music and/or art
8. Science
9. No evidence

Note here that English and reading are separate responses. English includes all language skills except reading. Since mathematics was Bill's favorite subject, the appropriate response for him is number 3.

Question 13. When listening, at what level is the learner's ability to comprehend?

1. Above grade level
2. At grade level
3. Below grade level
4. Not able to judge
5. No evidence

The listening comprehension level of a learner is often used as an indicator of potential reading level. The teacher must decide if the learner can comprehend when read to at a level normal for the learner's grade level (response number 2), below grade level (number 3), or above grade level (number 1). Indicators would be if a child can answer questions or follow oral directions about a story read to him/her at grade level.

Although Bill read only at the first grade level, his listening comprehension level, when tested on an Informal Reading Inventory (IRI), was several grades higher – grade 7. However, it was actually judged higher than this. Bill got very tired toward the end of the session, so testing was discontinued short of what he might have achieved at a listening comprehension level. Thus, even though Bill tested lower than his grade level (9th), response 2 is the choice.

Question 14. When reading, is the learner's ability to comprehend a strength?

1. Yes, a strength
2. No, average or weakness
8. Not able to judge
9. No evidence

This question can be answered best by someone who has worked with the learner. Skills on a higher level than literal comprehension should be considered: Can the learner make inferences and draw conclusions? Can the learner relate the material to other situations? If the learner can achieve these higher level comprehension skills, then response number 1, "yes, a strength," should be chosen. Otherwise, number 2 would be the choice.

Because Bill was able to discuss what he had read, make inferences, draw conclusions, and relate the material to his own experiences, response number 1 is the appropriate choice.

Question 15. Is the learner creative?

1. Yes, a strength or average
2. No, a weakness
8. Not able to judge
9. No evidence

Note that "strength or average" are grouped together, unlike question 14 where "average" is grouped with "weak" comprehension.

Bill's creativity came to the fore when he was dictating, editing, and putting together his book about experiences when skiing. During editing, Bill added some events that did not actually occur "to make it a better story," he said. As the book was put together, he decided it should be small enough to fit in his jeans pocket so he could choose who saw it and who didn't. Response number 1 is the choice.

Question 16. Is the learner curious?

1. Yes, strength
2. No, average or a weakness
8. Not able to judge
9. No evidence

This question is similar to question 14 with average and weakness grouped together. Bill was curious; he enjoyed discovering how things work. For him response number 1 is the choice.

Question 17. Do any of the following cultural pressures have a negative impact on the learner?

1. Father/addiction to alcohol or drugs/negative
2. Father/language or dialect/negative
3. Mother/language or dialect/negative
4. Parents/divorced/negative
8. Not able to judge
9. No evidence

Note that responses 1-4 should be chosen only if there is a negative impact on the learner. For example, although the learner's parents may be divorced, this may not necessarily have a negative impact on the child. The divorce may have been positive in the life of the child, so in this case response number 4 should not be chosen.

Responses 2 and 3 concern the language or dialect of the parents. If a language other than English is spoken at home and the child is not encouraged to learn English, this may be judged to have a negative impact and responses 2 or 3 should be chosen. The same is true if non-standard English is spoken, tolerated, or perhaps even encouraged at home.

Happily for most children the response to choose is number 9, "no evidence," as indeed it was for Bill.

Question 18. Which of the following personality traits does the learner have?

1. Reasonable self-concept
2. Shy
3. Lacking self-confidence
4. Show-off, cocky, constantly seeks attention
5. Uncooperative and self-willed
8. Not able to judge
9. No evidence

Response number 2, "shy," differs from number 3, "lacking self-confidence," in that a person who is shy may have self-confidence in his/her ability to perform but not in sharing performance with other people. The person who is lacking self-confidence will feel that he/she is unable to perform even though capable of doing so.

Bill had a reasonable self-concept. He knew he had ability in many areas. He also was comfortable reading to others even though his reading level was low. Number 1 would be chosen for Bill.

Question 19. Which of the following values self-motivate the learner?

1. Interests
2. Willingness to accept responsibility
3. Wants to please (love)
4. Success
5. Competition
6. Need for independence
7. Religion
8. Wants to learn
9. No evidence

The response chosen for this question should indicate what motivates the learner from within or what stimulates intrinsic pressure to accomplish something. Bill wanted to please his mother. This is why he stayed in school even though his father wanted him to quit. He knew how important graduation from high school was to his mother. Response number 3, "wants to please," is the choice.

Question 20. Which of the following values puts the greatest pressure on the learner?

1. Parental expectations/positive
2. Parental expectations/negative
3. Teacher expectations/positive
4. Teacher expectations/negative
5. Peer pressure/positive
6. Peer pressure/negative
7. Home situation/negative
8. Self-image (handicaps, retention, etc.)/negative
9. No evidence

This question is similar to earlier questions in that it is best answered by dividing it into pairings. Responses 1 and 2 are the first pair. Are the expectations of the learner's parents positive or negative? Since Bill was closer to his mother than his father at this time, and his mother expected him to graduate from high school, response number 1 would be chosen in this pair.

The second pair would be teacher expectations, positive or negative. The expectations of Bill's teacher were in many ways negative. She expected him to drop out of school. Very low educational expectations were held for him. Response number 4 would be chosen for Bill in this section.

Responses 5 and 6 would comprise part three. Bill did not appear to be affected by peer pressure. He was more involved with his family than with his peers. Neither response would be chosen for Bill in this pair. Responses 7 and 8 do not apply to Bill.

There were thus two possible responses for Bill for Question 20. Although his teacher had negative expectations for Bill, the positive expectations of his mother outweighed them. Response number 1, "parental expectations/positive," was putting the greatest pressure on Bill. Number 1 is, therefore, the choice.

The first step in FIRST Reading – completing the learner profile – is now finished using Bill as an example. Responses for each question have been chosen. One may wish to recheck responses at this point, remembering that it is better to choose "not able to judge" or "no evidence" than to guess and perhaps choose an inaccurate response. The one administering the profile is the expert in this very expert system!

Step Two: Processing Profile through FIRST Computer Program

It is now time to enter the learner-profile information into the computer program. The FIRST Reading program will match the information on these individual children with the instructional focus(es) that are most-likely-to-succeed. The eight possible focuses are discussed with examples in the next eight chapters.

CHAPTER 4

THE EIGHT INSTRUCTIONAL FOCUSES

Introduction

The eight alphabetically arranged focuses discussed in Chapters 5-12: comprehension, functional language, interest, games, language experience, motivation, self-concept enhancement, and study skills – were included in the FIRST database because, above other possibilities, they have made the most difference for over twenty years with learners at the School of Education Reading Practicum Center (RPC) at Indiana University, Bloomington. They were taken from carefully recorded case studies on individual or small group learners. Phonics, although often included in RPC instruction, is not included as one of the focuses because phonics was never the strategy that provided the spark that turned a troubled reader into an enthusiastic and successful one.

Within each focus an array of strategies are presented that have been successful for learners with certain characteristics. For example, the FIRST Reading recommended focuses might be Functional Language (80%) and Motivation (10%). For a second grader appropriate strategies might include following directions for building a model plane (Functional Language) combined with a progress chart recording pages read about model building (Motivation). For the high school senior, examination of career opportunities (Functional Language) and reading to a second grader (Functional Language + Motivation) might be the more appropriate application. The teacher, knowing the learner's age, sex, and interests, is always in the driver's seat but still shares with the learner the decisions relating to the turns of instruction, recognizing always that the recommended focus does not suggest need, but does provide the most-likely-to-succeed direction for instruction.

It is important to note that some activities may be included in more than one category. Reading and writing, for example, may be included in self-concept enhancement as well as motivation. The purpose and focus of a strategy may differ according to category, but the essence of the activity should not.

Teachers should realize that the content of Chapters 5-12 – which show how to implement recommended focuses – are not intended to be all inclusive, but rather should serve as a guide or starting point. They should feel free to improvise as long as the essence of the FIRST focus is followed. A brief note about each focus is provided here for easy reference.

A Description of the Eight Focuses

Comprehension (Ch. 5). The successful reader is one who understands and interacts with the author – is able to give meaning to print. Without such comprehension, the reader is mainly decoding. Usually comprehension is associated with the skills of identifying the main idea and supporting details (literal); making inferences (inferential); and drawing conclusions, making judgments, and evaluating (evaluative).

Functional language (Ch. 6). Reading menus, street signs, following directions, writing notes or letters, and filling out forms are basic functional language activities.

Games (Ch. 7). Games are any published-, teacher-, or student-made activities that offer friendly competition with another or oneself.

Interests (Ch. 8). A learner's interests should be the basis of any reading instruction. If a learner likes nature and outdoor life, then reading material – as well as writing, use of progress charts, and other activities – should acknowledge this interest.

Language experience (Ch. 9). Capitalizing on a learner's own language and personal experiences is a positive and productive approach in reading instruction. Usually the teacher writes down what the learner dictates; this then becomes the basis of reading material. It can be edited and "published." Bookmaking is a logical and satisfying outgrowth of language experience.

Motivation (Ch. 10). Motivation involves activities that produce the incentive to learn. Extrinsic rewards may be part of the activity. But ultimately intrinsic motivation (that comes from within the learner) should be the eventual outcome.

Self-concept enhancement (Ch. 11). Activities that promote the learner's self-esteem are essential. This is one step in assuring the success of the learner.

Study skills (Ch. 12). It is important that the learner understand how to manage effectively his study procedures. These may include how to organize his time efficiently as well as how to take notes, outline, and the like.

Choosing a name for the eight focuses. Those familiar with the teaching of reading will readily recognize, as they examine the preceding eight focuses, that they differ considerably in magnitude and categorization. Comprehension, for example, is not a strategy, per se. But for some learners special emphasis on comprehension within their Reading Practicum Center tutoring was what turned them on to significant progress in reading.

Likewise, many different strategies may be used in developing study skills with a learner, whereas language experience is recognized as a definable strategy. Motivation is easily recognized as a concept underlying successful endeavor, as is interest. And finally, games may be thought of as a general area for sport or recreation – or in this case – for reinforcement of a specific skill area such as sight vocabulary. Successful experiences in each of these areas builds the learner's self-concept. But for some learners emphasis on developing a positive self-concept was the most important aspect of instruction.

Because of these differences in magnitude and categorization the authors were led to choose the term focus rather than method, strategy, approach, or activity for the eight categories of recommendations. We realize that these eight are not tidy nor parallel. But they are the most accurate descriptors we could find to define the eight most-likely-to-succeed areas which appeared to turn young learners into successful readers.

CHAPTER 5

COMPREHENSION

Comprehension involves interaction on many levels between reader and author. Traditionally, comprehension has meant giving meaning to print. Without comprehension, the learner is only decoding. Understanding and applying such basic skills as recognizing main idea and supporting details (literal); making inferences, judgments, generalizations, and evaluating text are often included as basic building blocks in comprehending text. The four topics discussed below under comprehension – prior knowledge, setting a purpose, questioning, and prediction – while not exhaustive, represent highly significant aspects in developing a learner's thoughtful response to text.

Prior Knowledge

The knowledge a child brings to instruction makes a text more accessible. One who has never seen farm animals or the ocean would have difficulty understanding material relating to these objects. Providing pictures, videos, film strips, or such related objects as sea shells or miniature farm animals can bring a text alive at its first encounter.

One teacher brought baby goats to share with her learners who had never been on a farm. Their opportunity to see, hear, and touch these animals opened many new interests in reading. Having live animals is best, but if unavailable or impractical, turning to film, models, or pictures is always appropriate.

Setting a Purpose

"Why should a learner want to read a particular text?" How many times has this question been posed to Reading Practicum Center students before and during tutoring? And how many times have instructors written on student lesson plans "Purpose from learner's point of view?" It sounds so simple! Yet to couch a lesson from the learner's perspective remains one of the most elusive aspects of an effective lesson plan. Certainly instructors can understand that learners are more likely to want to do something if they are doing it because they have a purpose. And yet, instructor purpose and learner purpose continue to get tangled up! Here is an example. Instructor: "Tommy, the next story has some words in it that we worked on yesterday. See if you can find four of those words." This is strictly vocabulary review. Nary a hint of learner purpose. Whereas, "Tommy, there are several words here you might find useful in classifying the rocks you have been collecting." Already Tommy is into the text, eagerly looking for clues about his rocks. Thus, we see that setting a purpose for reading from the learner's point of view gives positive focus to the learner's activity.

Questioning

Identifying an appropriate purpose for a learner often involves questioning. "Jamal, what kinds of birds did you see when you went to the zoo last week?," might precede a science lessons on wild birds. Or, "Dorothy, what were the highlights of your mountain climbing experience last summer?," could open a discussion on preparing for a backpacking trip. If a class, or single student, is developing a unit on values in social studies, the teacher might ask, "what choices are available and what characteristics do you see in the candidates running for class president that match these values?"

A next step is eliciting from the learner the things he would like to know about a topic. This discussion provides additional information about the learner's background and may also take shape as another list or semantic map.

Questioning may be used in a variety of situations. It is important to remember that since learners bring unique life experiences to a text, there may be no right or wrong answers to questions except where a literal answer is required. The following sample questions require going beyond the literal. Here learners are asked to answer questions based on their own knowledge and experiences as well as on the text. In fact, as in the examples above, the teacher should frame questions so as to bring forth the learner's experience-gained knowledge as it relates to the content of the text.

To help set a learner's purpose for reading a text about clubs, the teacher might ask, "Have you ever belonged to a club?," "What did you do in your club?," or, "What do you think a club might do?" Then, as the learner reads, he can compare his experiences or expectations with those presented in the text. After the reading the teacher should follow up on any leads that have arisen during the course of the questioning. For instance, if she finds out that one of the learners has never been in a club, she might ask others who have, to talk about their initiations, special handshakes, codes, and so forth.

If a text to be read is in a content area, a list recorded by the teacher or the results of semantic mapping showing the learner's knowledge, if any, of the content, together with a second list giving questions about the content the learner would like to have answered, can be made. This second list should be handy during and after the reading of a passage. Questions not answered in the passage can be researched by the learner in the school library or in reference materials available in the classroom.

Asking questions during the reading of a text, whether in a content area or otherwise, can help focus the learner's attention – questions about what has just been read as well as what the learner thinks will occur next in the text (see "prediction" below). Use questions that will help the learner bring the story together and tie it in with his own experience. Questions that could help focus the reader might be "What just happened?," "Did you expect this to happen?," and "why?," or "Why not?"

At the end of the reading, questions can be asked to further the learner's understanding of the text. They could be "Why do you think the story is real or imaginary?," "Why did you like the ending of the story?," and "How would you change the story to make it better?" These will encourage the learner to use his own experiences and knowledge to better understand the text.

It is important to ask questions that the learner cannot answer with "yes" or "no." Use questions that begin with "why," "how," or "what." If this strategy is used with a group, be sure to explain that it is all right to have different answers so long as the answers make sense with the text and their experiences and knowledge.

Predicting

The use of prediction strategies is another easy way to help a learner focus on the text while providing valuable insights for the instructor as to the learner's knowledge relating to the text. Predicting an outcome immediately engages the learner's interest because it conveys respect. "I respect your point of view enough to ask you how you think this will come out."

Before beginning to read, have the learner try to predict, considering the title and any graphic material presented, what the story may be about. Record on paper or the chalkboard these predictions. Then begin to read, stopping frequently to allow the learner to adjust his predictions as the story unfolds. Encourage the reader to expand or alter his predictions during the reading. Learner and teacher may proceed in this manner to the end of the story, or the reading could be stopped and the learner asked to write or tell an anticipated ending. Then the learner's ending and the story's ending can be compared. Always accept the learner's ending as long as it makes sense with the text up to the point where he stopped reading. Encouraging predictions in this way allows learners in a group to participate whether they are fluent readers or not.

Cloze

The Cloze procedure is another way of helping learners focus on the meaning of a text. (See Newman, 1986.) In this strategy the first and last sentences of a story are left intact. Throughout the rest of the story every fifth word is deleted and left blank. At first it may be helpful to the learner to delete every ninth word, thus leaving more clues. As the learner becomes familiar with the strategy, the deleted words can occur closer together.

Originally the design of the Cloze procedure required that the learner supply the exact missing word. For most purposes, however, this is not necessary so long as the learner's word fits the meaning of the text. It is probably best if stories are no longer than a page. Also, it is helpful if the learner has a large enough vocabulary to be able to fill in the blanks.

One second grader was very hesitant the first time his tutor asked him to complete a Cloze story. He wanted to check each word with the tutor before filling in the blanks since previously he had not been very successful at guessing. After several sessions with the Cloze procedure he found that he knew words that made sense with the context of the story, and he wanted no more help. He looked forward to reading the stories and comparing his answers with the original text.

A sixteen year old also enjoyed Cloze procedure – especially when reading stories the tutor had written involving his interests.

Both these learners soon were able to apply the word-prediction skills attained with the Cloze stories when they came across unfamiliar words in their reading. Naturally this helped in their reading comprehension.

Main Idea

A strategy helpful in developing learners' ability to identify the main idea in a text is to ask them to supply a title or headline for a short passage. Begin by discussing the purpose for a title or headline. Then ask a learner to suggest a word or two that would clearly describe the content of the passage. Following this, the learner could then expand this short title or headline to include an important idea or two about the passage.

A teacher working with six fourth graders found the session time being used up with each student relating the whole story he or she had read. The teacher solved this by asking the students to reduce a story's content to one sentence. With this restraint, the learners not only stated the story's main idea more succinctly, but were able to interest other group members in the stories. In fact, there was much passing of books from learner to learner. And the teacher had more time to implement other strategies.

This approach works well in small groups where each student has read a different story. It is an excellent exercise for learning to summarize a text.

Supporting Details

Once a student is able to identify the main idea, a next step is to identify supporting details. Supplying a title or headline is a good start. A striking detail often makes for a strong headline. The learner can then be asked to supply other supporting details to the main idea. A seventh-grade student, for example, wrote a story about his sister's experience on his motorcycle. When it came time to add a title to his story, he chose "She Killed It!" His sister had run the motorcycle into a tree!

CHAPTER 6

FUNCTIONAL LANGUAGE

Functional language is the language used in everyday situations: reading street signs, notices, menus, labels on food products, following written directions, filling out forms, writing memos or shopping lists. These, and other functional language experiences, can be the basis of reading instruction and academic development for many learners.

Letter Writing

Often a reluctant reader is given a boost through corresponding with a friend, a relative, a famous person, or writing a specific source for information. In using letter writing as a teaching strategy, allow the learner to choose the reason and the recipient. Pen-pal exchanges between learner groups in a school or classroom, with older people in a nursing home, with relatives, or children in another school or city all work well. Sometimes magazines in various interest areas include names and addresses of those wishing to exchanging letters. At one time a young learner wrote to thirty pen pals after placing her name in a magazine about horses.

When learners have difficulty writing, let them write several practice letters before the final draft. Keep correction to a minimum at first. Later, as the learners gain confidence, refinements may be added.

For those reluctant to write, have the learner dictate to the teacher – as in the language experience approach – what might be said in a letter, and then read it back to see if it says what the learner wishes. Make changes if necessary. A learner may enjoy taping a letter and then watching the teacher transcribe it. Depending on the age of the learner, a picture drawn by the learner could be added to the letter.

Message boards – which can be effective with a group or an entire class – are also useful in motivating learners to write. Messages can be exchanged between teacher and learner or between learners. The message can be short, "Have a happy day," or long – containing questions, answers to questions received, directions for doing something, etc.

Surreptitious notes, long the delight for passing during class and ostensibly without teacher knowledge, can be turned into a useful means of encouraging communication skills – if skillfully handled. The writers must understand that in order to be acceptable, their notes must support learning and be written at an appropriate time.

Editing

Most writing needs to be edited if it is to be shared. Point out to the student that written material intended to be made public is usually edited in some way by the writer – often many times –

before being passed on to an editor. Show the learner that the names of editors are included in the masthead of a newspaper or magazine. In this way he will see that editing is a normal part of preparing material for publication.

Begin by having the student read aloud to himself or another person what he has written or dictated. Suggest that he listen to see if what is written is clear and makes sense. Then have the learner compose a second draft incorporating any corrections or additions. This might entail rewriting or cutting and pasting to rearrange the original. As computer usage becomes more common, the editing process will become more streamlined, with cutting and pasting being accomplished in seconds rather than minutes. But, even with computer facilitation, as the writing progresses sensitive questioning and discussion will improve the quality of the product (Graves, 1981).

As a final step, if the material is to be published in a book, as an article in a class newspaper, or in some other form, consider further editing with the assistance of whoever is responsible for the content of the book or article – the editor, teacher, or teaching assistant, for example. However, avoid over editing which may destroy the character of the original document.

Interviewing

Interviewing can be related to many student interests: sports figures, science authorities, social studies related events, a visiting actor, or a special hobbiest. All these become fair game for a young telecommunications aspirant. Have the learner develop a list of questions he would like answered by his knowledgeable "someone." Be sure space is provided for recording responses. This may take more than one session. Then have the learner, together with the one to be interviewed, set a time and place for the interview. Afterwards the learner writes the information in a format that can be clearly shared with others – perhaps in written form to be read during a school radio news broadcast.

One youngster, working with a tape recorder and preplanned questionnaire, interviewed several summer session teachers in his school. The tape recorder freed him from having to think about writing. This made it possible for him to capitalize on his strength – an ability to "ham it up" amusingly as he spoke with each teacher. Later, he and his tutor worked to compile the results of the interviews and develop a clearly stated composite for the Summer School Gazette published by the summer school students.

Following Directions

"Where should I go?" asked Alice. "That all depends on where you want to end up," replied the Cheshire Cat in Alice's Adventures in Wonderland. Like Alice, everyone needs to have a sense of direction – of where one is going – before the steps required to reach the destination can be realized.

When giving assignments, be sure the learner understands the directions. Allow time for discussing questions. Asking the learner to describe exactly what he anticipates doing, often solidifies expectations for both parties. It may be helpful to type out a list of directions which the learner checks off as each step is completed. With primary-level children, where there is group participation, directions for accomplishing a task may be placed on the chalkboard. In this way, as a task is completed a student can check it off. The group might then reread the directions together.

Treasure hunts are an enjoyable way for learners to see the importance of following directions. After conducting a few treasure hunts, the teacher should then have the learners write the clues. Clues need not be direct, but might be couched so as to require innovative thinking on the learners' part.

Following directions in a recipe offers the incentive of enjoying the results. One Reading Practicum Center learner became an enthusiastic reader of recipes as he and his tutor planned a Chinese dinner for his mom.

Planning Trips

Planning trips – to the local grocery, the county fair, another state or country – is also a functional language strategy. If the destination is within walking, driving, or flying distance, maps (either published or sketched out with the tutor) will be needed in considering the route, time, and cost. For extensive trips, places to eat and sleep, as well as activities undertaken along the way, must be considered.

Any questions the learner may have in planning a trip should be answered as clearly as possible. This may involve writing sources for particular maps or information about special attractions, or simply keeping a written account of steps to be taken.

When possible, the learner should complete the trip by following the plans, noting any difficulties encountered that might require changes should the trip be taken another time. If several learners have followed through on trips they have planned, these can be shared, including how unexpected problems were resolved.

An alternative approach to this strategy is to have the learner plan and compare two routes to the same destination to discover which is the better in cost, time required, and points of interest.

Driver's License

To the learner approaching driverhood, getting a driver's license offers an excellent lesson in functional language. Driving lessons, sometimes available at high schools or the State License Branch, begin with the driver's manual. Should the manual exceed the learner's reading ability, significant parts of it can be rewritten at the learner's level. (In some states rewritten manuals are available from the Adult Literacy Resource Center or State License Branch.) At various times, while in the process of driver training, the learner might report his learning experiences to the tutor orally or in writing, or record tips he can share with others interested in getting a driver's license.

Menus

Often emerging readers enjoy eating out, but have difficulty reading the menus. Generally, sample menus can be obtained from restaurants to use as teaching material. Later the learner can actually practice placing an order within a specific budget. In a mock situation the learner could act as a waiter, taking the tutor's order or orders from a group.

CHAPTER 7

GAMES

Most learners like playing games. Games may be published or student/teacher made. In either case, they offer the possibility of friendly competition with another or oneself. Some commercial games are flexible, fun, and non-threatening. A few favorites for the language arts are Scrabble, Spill and Spell, Probe, and Password.

It is also possible to make master boards with a start and finish covering various themes such as mountain climbing, the Indy 500, or ski-jumping. Naturally, gear the game to the learner's interests. Markers can be moved for different reasons depending on the rules of the game. Cards, for example, with quiz questions about a book, might be a means, if the question is answered correctly, to move ahead one space.

Variations of the game Concentration, which learners of all ages seem to enjoy, may be played. Words that have proven difficult or are new to the learner may be placed on cards. Be sure the learner not only matches the words but can also say the word before keeping the card. As learners master the words in the game, remove them and supply new words. However, always keep in the game a few familiar words so that successes are experienced by the learner.

Some points to remember when using games:

1. Can the game be played without previous knowledge of either the game or the subject?
2. Do all the players need the same knowledge?
3. Are frequent decisions required?
4. Does the time spent playing the game seem more appropriate than having the students read?
5. Have you, the instructor. kept the objectives, content, format, and adaptability in mind when considering the relevance of the game to the unit being studied?

Board Games

Many published word games are on the market, but it is also easy to make generic game boards that can be used for a variety of games to fit a learner's abilities and interests. Often tutors have used manila folders laid flat to make a trail game board. The folders will last longer if they are laminated after the trail board has been made. Several boards can be made to match the interests of learners. The folders can be stored in a file drawer with the game pieces tucked inside.

To reinforce comprehension, questions tied to a specific story, or generic questions that would fit any story, can be used. A learner moves the pieces along the trail as questions are successfully answered. Questions related to a specific story can be kept in a labeled envelope and used later with other learners reading the same story.

Word Games

Word games can be as simple as recognizing sight words on cards to moving pieces along a trail in a game format. As words become part of a learner's reading vocabulary, they can be dropped from the game and new ones added. However, always keep a few words the learner can easily identify. To make the game more difficult, have the learner use a word in a sentence, or define it if working on vocabulary building, before being allowed to move.

A word game that does not require a board is an adaptation of Concentration. Words easy for the learner can be placed on 3x5 cards cut in half. Words with parts the learner may not have attended to, such as that/than, rough/enough, cough/throat, and so forth, can be targeted for practice. Place cards with words on one side face down on the table in approximately five rows. To keep the cards the learner must both match and pronounce the words. The number of words used in the game will depend on the learner's reading level.

This game works well with learners from elementary through high school. A sixteen year old reading at the second grade level was having problems distinguishing the words though, through, and thought. By the second session of playing the game he could easily recognize the differences in the three words and use them in context. He was motivated to learn the words because he was eager to win the game.

CHAPTER 8

INTEREST

Research and experience have shown that learners are likely to be successful readers if they are interested in what they read. A longitudinal study conducted at the Reading Practicum Center (RPC) at Indiana University, Bloomington, revealed that low-readiness first graders who were successful high school readers had a wide variety of interests as they progressed through school. It is important to build lessons, experiences, and independent reading around these learner interests. For example, if a learner likes cats, include the subject of cats in the reading material, or at least allude to it as the lessons progress. This focus should carry through into writing assignments, progress charts, and other activities.

There are many ways to discover learner interests. A simple way is through informal discussions. Administering an Informal Interest Inventory (III) is another way. (See Appendix C for sample inventories for grades 1-6 and 7-12.) When giving an III be sure to ask non-threatening questions at first: "What do you like to do after school?," for example. Save more probing questions for later when tutor and learner feel comfortable with each other: "If you could have a book of your own, what would it be about?"

After discovering a learner's interests, begin immediately to tie the instruction to these interests. As the tutor encourages expression through reading, writing, and sharing, the once uninterested learner often exhibits new motivation in his work. The following sections offer activities built on learner interests that have proven successful at the Reading Practicum Center.

Individualized Reading

"Look, David, I found this book last night when I was at the library and I immediately thought of you. I know how interested you are in strange plants." Even the most impenetrable reader will open up when provided an individually selected book, magazine, comic book, or newspaper article chosen with his interests in mind. Eventually students need to select material for themselves, and thus transfer their concept of reading-to-learn for in-class assignments to reading-to-learn for personal enlightenment and growth. At such times, the alert touch of a teacher can really pay off.

Students can be shown how to select books from the school library. But using the public library should also be mentioned As an encouragement, the tutor might accompany the student on his first visit to the library to show where various books, tapes, and other material can be located, assist in securing a library card, and otherwise help the student feel comfortable with the personnel and the purpose of a library. Many students have never been to a library nor have their parents or siblings. Parental permission should be obtained for such trips.

It is helpful for a teacher to bring to class a variety of books (about five) chosen to match learner interests and reading level. At least 95% of the words on any page should be familiar to the student. Let the student choose one or two of the books to take home if he wishes. At first some will be reluctant to take books home, but, if not pushed, the reluctance usually breaks down. Sign the books out, recording each one's title and author, the student's name, and the date. When a book is returned, if possible, the teacher should share something about the book with the learner: "Didn't you think the part about the donkey was funny?"

Progress Charts

Once students begin reading books, have them keep a list of what they read. Make progress charts that reflect a student's interests and show how much they read each day. For instance, for a student who likes baseball, a chart using a baseball diamond can be used. For every book read, or a predetermined number of pages, the student advances one base. When he has scored a certain number of runs, a reward, such as a special pencil, book, or other treat (but be careful about edibles), might be given. If appropriate, the student can help make the chart. Watching the number of books grow will motivate many students to read more. Careful observation will tell when these extrinsic motivators are no longer needed (see "Progress Charts" under Motivation, Ch. 10).

High Interest/Low Vocabulary Books (hi-lo)

Hi-lo books are excellent for beginning readers. These books are written for a higher level interest area but with a lower level vocabulary. They are available in a variety of interest levels including some classics that have been rewritten for this purpose. The point of using hi-lo books is that interest can be maintained with material that is within the student's reading level. Such reading material develops the student's desire to read – to choose to do so on his own. One second grader read 97 books one semester. Prior to RPC tutoring he had never read a book all the way through. His "reading troubles" were greatly lessened after that semester. This is not an unusual occurrence among students motivated in this way.

There are several publishing companies that specialize in hi-lo books: Addison-Wesley, Allyn and Bacon, Benefic Press, Bowmar, Crestwood House, Education Activities, Incs., and Fearon-Pitman.

Predictable Books

Predictable books are those familiar stories (Three little pigs, The Gingerbread Boy, Henny Penny, and many modern stories) which, through rhythm and repetition, have captured generations of children. Their simple storyline and plot, vivid action and suspense, captivate the young who soon store the words in memory. Their outcomes, predictable and much loved, are anticipated with as much delight on the fifth reading as on the first.

Beginning readers need to hear themselves and others read such familiar stories often. Soon they have the words in their ears and can say or "read" them themselves. This is a vital first step in the reading process. Youngsters who think of themselves as readers through such listening soon are reading, capturing needed sight vocabulary, following picture clues avidly, and absorbing phonic correspondences naturally.

Youngsters participating in a large first grade study (Reid & Beltramo, 1965) were found leafing ahead eagerly in the story. As so-called low readers, they had to depend on the predictable elements in the story to enhance their reading power. Although the stories were not always predictable in the sense described above, the actions of the children suggested an eagerness to use their curiosity to follow and complete a story line. Teachers, used to restraining children from looking ahead, had to reeducate themselves to recognize the power of the children's eagerness, and to harness the energy to a constructive end. During the years since that study – particularly in the 1980s – it has been recognized that allowing curiosity and predictive power to operate is a smart strategy.

Language Experience

For students with little interest in reading, the language experience approach can be helpful because the stories dictated to the tutor come from the students' own experience. These stories can be collected in a folder or in book form for reading by the student or for sharing with others. (See Chapter 9 for a more detailed discussion of Language Experience.)

Writing in an Area of Interest

As with language experience, writing in an area of interest is an effective strategy because, again, it draws upon the learner's reservoir of experiences and interests. Many formats for this approach can be used.

A written account that centers on a particular interest of a learner – a dirt bike, a weekend outing, a favorite sports figure – can quickly become a favorite teaching strategy. Learners writing in their interest areas become involved in telling something, and thus writing assumes its rightful role as a vehicle for communication. The learner is in a non-threatening situation since for the moment little emphasis is placed on spelling or grammar.

Another format for writing in an area of interest is to begin by taping a learner's experience and then transcribe it exactly as taped. After seeing the transcribed account, the learner may spend several hours editing and rewriting to get the story the way he wants it. (See Language Experience. Ch. 9)

A junior high student who previously refused to write was motivated to do so when her group became involved in writing a play. Because she was interested in the situation the group was working with, she became an eager writer. As she left the room at the end of the first session,

she was heard to say, "We are really good writers!"
(See Language Experience, Ch. 9.)

Other formats in this strategy can be letter writing (to friends or relatives, or gain information), writing about a book read, or composing a short story or poetry. The learner could write an ending to a predictable book or a different ending to a favorite story. Or the learner might write a book to share about fishing, hunting, microscopes, or making a dress. Writing such a book is especially effective if another learner or the teacher is not knowledgeable in the learner's area of expertise and thus the learner becomes the teacher. (See Functional Language, Ch. 6.)

After completing he writing, the teacher should encourage peer editing. Then the students can share their stories with others in pairs or with a group. These steps have been formalized in what is called the authoring cycle (see Harste & Burke, 1985).

Other ideas for editing are included in Functional Language, Ch. 6, and Language Experience, Ch. 9. (See also Newman, 1980.)

Listening to Material of Interest

Listening to oneself or another on a tape recording is often useful as a motivating procedure – especially if the learner operates the recorder. In particular it (1) promotes self-expression, (2) provides an enjoyable means to improve skills, (3) incorporates practical approaches to individualized study, and (4) benefits students by teaching them to use the equipment while becoming personally interested in their own learning.

Books on tape offer an alternative to silent reading, especially for those having difficulty reading, since they get to hear material before reading it themselves A teacher can play a tape-recorded story to students and afterwards have them respond by recording answers to questions about the story. Students love to hear their own voices.

One young learner at the Reading Practicum Center wanted to write a letter to a sports hero. He was having difficulty doing this, so it was suggested he tape what he wished to write. After doing this, he was able to play it back a short amount at a time and transcribe the letter. He was thrilled at being able to accomplish something that at first seemed so frustrating.

A retired English teacher, Emily Chatlein, patented a method to teach high school freshmen to read. The method was found to be equally successful with all levels of readers. The approach is to read or play a taped book or story of interest to a group. In the reading, a word is periodically deleted followed by a pause allowing the listener to write the word in a list. At the end of the session, after perhaps 20 or 30 minutes, the listener might have accumulated ten words which may then be checked by the group.

Another way to use a tape recorder is to have students write a news report including weather, sports, current events, and so forth, and then have them tape this in broadcast form. This approach also reinforces functional literacy.

Rewriting Materials

Finding material that fits both learner interests and reading level is often difficult. One way to circumvent this is to rewrite a complex text to match a student's reading level. Even though at first it may take patience on the transcriber's part, the process is simple:

1. Find a selection known to be of interest to the learner which he may have expressed a desire to read more about. The sources are many. Newspapers, magazines, encyclopedias, Guinness Book of World Records, familiar stories, fairy tales, and the like, have all been successful with learners.
2. Read the selection carefully noting details that would be of particular interest to the learner.
3. Put the material aside.
4. With the learner in mind, rewrite what was read without referring to the text.
5. Carefully type or word process (using spacing, lines, and margins appropriate for the learner) what has been written.
6. Have the learner read the simplified version.
7. Discuss. Compare with the original. Note similarities and differences. Without pressure, and only if the instructor deems it possible, let the learner read a bit from the original in order to demonstrate to him that he can move successfully into the more complex original text.

Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Reading (USSR)

USSR is a practice that recognizes a student's need for uninterrupted reading time. Many schools set aside a time for such reading – the principal, secretary, teachers, and custodian included as readers. Through example and administrative fiat, this time guarantees the quiet and privacy needed for individual enjoyment of reading. This activity encourages independent reading, self-selection of material, and the possibility of developing a deeper appreciation for reading.

Should students have difficulty adjusting or concentrating during such quiet times, start with short periods of time and gradually increase them. Explain that this time is set aside for reading only, but be sure reading material is available that will meet their interests and reading ability. A library of 200 to 300 books covering a variety of subjects is desirable in the classroom.

Self-Choice of Reading Material

When possible, encourage students to choose their own topics and resources. In this way they are likely to read more frequently and with greater retention. Resources may include maps, newspapers, magazines, encyclopedias, as well as books. Students should be shown how to use computer or card catalogs and other readers' guides.

Reading and Real-Life Activities

When students read, write, or answer questions, try to individualize assignments. A central goal of teaching is to help students transfer in-class abilities to real-life activities. Generally students wish to pursue learning in areas they perceive as meaningful to them, which, in turn, encourages the sense of life-long learning. (See Functional Language, Ch. 6.)

For older students, administering an interest inventory can be useful for identifying vocational and other inclinations. Such interests can be easily developed into a unit project. For example, ask students to read a book about a person in a area of interest to them and, if feasible, interview someone who works in this area. Ask them to think about the kinds of reading and writing skills needed for a person to succeed in the position they are researching. With the information gathered, they could then write a short report on what was discovered in relation to their expectations and how they might see themselves in this role.

Field trips to museums, industries, government offices, court rooms, and other public places can help students see the many ways reading and writing are used in real-life situations. In a summer session course in the School of Education at Indiana University the students explored, in collaboration with the Monroe County Schools, the question "Why our family came to Monroe County." The elementary school children interviewed parents and grandparents. Their accounts were displayed at the Monroe County Historical Museum. Children and relatives later visited the museum to see the stories on display and pick up compilations of all the stories. In the process some saw a museum for the first time.

If it is impossible to take a field trip, invite representatives from various fields of interest to visit the classroom and discuss how they use reading and writing. Examples may be as simple as reading and writing phone messages or as complex as writing annual reports for stockholders.

Challenge in Interest Area

To some students, offering a challenge is effective, while others will wilt if challenged before experiencing enough success to feel secure in accepting. If learners are up to it, offer a challenge: "I'll bet you can read 25 pages by 2:30!," or, as one tutor offered when she realized her rural student never got to eat out even at fast food restaurants, "I'll take you to McDonalds for a treat after you have read 1000 pages." Be sure, however, to develop challenges that are attainable by the learners.

A learner might complete an independent project in an area of interest, perhaps write articles for a school newspaper, or act in a community play and then report on the experience. For one student it meant learning to apply math skills to a real-life situation and sharing his experience orally and in writing with other students. For a second grader it meant putting all he knew about baseball players on 3x5 cards with a main heading in the upper left corner and a subheading in the upper right. As his collection grew (he knew a lot about many players!), so did his self-confidence. Soon his independent "research" project blossomed into a class sharing that brought much confidence and satisfaction to a young man previously labeled "learning disabled."

For older and more capable students, ask them to put in writing exactly what it is they plan to do for their independent project, including materials, resources, and people necessary for the extended lesson. In essence, the students write their own rationale for the project, and what they expect to accomplish in the course of a few weeks. Have the students keep a journal or diary recording their activities, and their impressions of the events that take place. It might also be useful for students to share their out-of-class work with other students, disseminating the new learning. Allow for degrees of original learning to take place.

In all these activities, learner interests have played a major role. Real gains can continue with less enthusiastic readers if such interests are kept in mind as instructional activities are planned.

There will be instances in which a learner seems to evidence no special interests. This is an opportunity for the instructor to offer ideas which might have appeal for a particular child. Reading Practicum Center examples include: The first grader from an impoverished background for whom making a little dress after school opened an interest and ability in sewing. The second grader who would not speak until she was given a camera and allowed to take pictures at home and at school. The eighth grade washout who was guided to rehabilitate an old bike and whose talent in bike repair became obvious. The high school student who poured out stories while repairing an old typewriter. These were instances in which, although interests were not readily apparent, with careful nurtrance, they did emerge.

CHAPTER 9

LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE

Language Experience, as a strategy, takes into account the special language, background, experiences, and interests of a learner. Through individualized activities – that combine the dimensions of speaking, listening, writing, and reading – the strategy helps a learner see the connection between print and spoken language.

Usually language experience involves having the learner dictate some personal experience to a tutor or teacher that can then be used as reading material. At some point in a discussion the teacher may say to the learner, "What you are telling me would make a good story. Let's keep talking and I'll write down your account as it unfolds." Note that this situation does not begin with a generalized statement, such as, "Now tell me a story and I'll write it down." Rather, the story must be a genuine account of some moment in the learner's experience that has special meaning for him.

As in a good conversation, the listener endeavors to keep the ideas aloft, offering encouragement by a nod, smile, or phrase as the telling progresses. If working with a learner who seems reluctant to talk, the teacher may need to introduce leads, almost like story starters, which the learner can complete or amplify.

When a story, or chapter in a longer story, has been completed, the teacher should process the story in some clear form for the learner to use as reading material. "Did I get this right?," or "Do you want to add anything?," are questions that provide a purpose for practice in rereading material. As the learner reads, some additions or corrections to the text may be incorporated.

Some stories have begun with something as simple as, "What did you have for breakfast this morning?," if other "meatier" topics were not forthcoming. Some stories have evolved over time as weekly installments of a learner's ongoing activity – perhaps working with a motorcycle, writing poetry, or playing on the soccer team.

Collecting language experience stories can also be a group activity. In this case members of a group contribute to a discussion, say, about a field trip to the zoo they took the day before. The teacher may have opened the discussion by asking, "Which animals did you think were the funniest," or "Are there any of the animals you'd like to have as pets?" As they go along, the teacher writes the responses on the board, on a flip chart, or on an overhead transparency. Highlights of the material can then be read by the students. Later, duplication for all might result in a take-home book or a book for the school library.

In some instances these activities have moved on to larger projects. A student and tutor at the Reading Practicum Center collaborated on a weekly sports sheet which was duplicated by the tutor and delivered to classmates every Friday. One boy expanded the story of Pegasus into an inch-thick book. Other language experience expansions tell of hunting dogs, adventures in the woods, tales about growing up. One high school boy wrote hilarious tales of his escapades in the New York City schools.

In many instances the finished project or booklet became a treasured possession of the learner. In one case a book of poems written by an RPC student was the only piece of reading material evident in the home when the tutor visited the family. "Have you seen our daughter's book?" was the first question to greet the visitor.

In summary, the language experience approach is an effective non-threatening strategy that encourages learners to talk about what they know and have experienced, and produces material that is representative of the learner's life.

The *Literacy Instructor Training Manual* (Newman and Parer, 1978), contains a complete description of the steps in developing a language experience story. See also *How to Increase Reading Ability* (Harris and Sipay, 1980), *Teaching Reading to Every Child* (Lapp and Flood, 1978), or *A Practical Guidebook for Adult Literacy Programmes in Developing Nations* (Crawford, 1995).

Editing

The language-experience stories students produce offer the experience of being editors of their own work. One student, after dictating an account to the tutor, said, "This isn't right." Even though it was exactly what he had related to the tutor, he realized, when reading it, that some restructuring was needed. Ultimately he spent several days retyping and cutting and pasting to make the story "sound right." These days many students can simplify the editing process with a word processor.

Although it may not be necessary to make a "perfect" final copy of a student's story, if the writing is to be published or distributed, it should, in fairness to the learner and reader, be as clean as possible. Proofreading one's work before sharing it is an act of courtesy that many writers respond to positively. Final editing may be done by the tutor just as a professional editor would do to make a manuscript ready for publication.

Students should be encouraged to edit each other's work. It will help them be better writers. It can be pointed out that a professional writer will produce many drafts of a work before the final one. (This manuscript, for example, went through at least six to eight "generations.") Fellow writers or colleagues are often asked to read these drafts for content, giving constructive suggestions where necessary.

In the editing process, students can be directed to dictionaries, a thesaurus, encyclopedias, or other source material to help check on content. In developing a class newspaper, for example, encourage critical reading during editing, checking the logic and accuracy of the content of a article to be published. Some questions to keep in mind are: Is the writer an authority on the subject? Are the statements understandable and clear? What evidence is presented to support views of either fact or opinion?

It is important that students be constructive in their comments about another's writing. Some modeling by the tutor is helpful in demonstrating how to edit with consideration another person's writing.

Bookmaking

A natural outgrowth of language-experience stories are small, pupil dictated and illustrated books. Many children, after creating the contents of a book, are thrilled to have it available in their room or school library for other children to read. They truly begin to feel like authors as they write, discuss with others, edit, and bind their own material. The tutor may assist in typing the story and in the binding process.

The various ways of binding books are many. Some simple approaches involve covering cardboard with contact paper. But cloth-bound books are more durable and more likely to be treasured. Directions for simple bookbinding are in Appendix B.

Story Starters

Story starters are prods to creative thinking. Here are some ideas:

1. Laminate pictures that would appeal to the interests and age level of students: pets, wild animals or birds, special people, historic scenes, or pictures relating to holidays. Use a picture as a base of discussion with a student that may bring forth experiences that could be written up as stories. If the student is not ready to write, have him dictate to the teacher in the manner of the language experience approach. With a group of students, each learner could write his own story or the group could collaborate on one story.

2. From a few sentence stems listed on the board or on paper and distributed to the learners at their desks, let each choose the one that suggests a story. Encourage illustrations.

3. Have a written conversation with a student that does not allow talking. Written conversations take place in writing rather than in oral exchange. They offer an opportunity for encouraging writing without placing emphasis on procedures. Ideas for story writing may hatch during these exchanges. They often come quickly when communication is friendly and no emphasis is placed on form and spelling. These can come later.

4. Have learners create stories based on some inanimate object. Consider the tall tales of Paul Bunyan. Or a learner could exaggerate the elements of some experience so that it becomes a preposterous tall tale.

5. Develop a game based on a book they know. Have the learners write directions for the game and then ask others to play it to see if the directions work. Rewrite if necessary.

Dramatized Experiences

Writing a play can be a creative way for students to express their experiences. Familiarize the learners with the special characteristics of play writing by reading one or more plays appropriate to their situation. Learners could read the parts in a play. After this they may write a play – either alone or as a group.

A group of middle school students wrote a play about teenagers and drunk driving. Each student wrote the part for one character, passing a notebook from one learner to another as their character spoke. One student refused to participate, so the teacher wrote her part. After watching the others write, the girl grabbed the notebook and began to write. At the end of the session the girl left the room stating what good writers they all were. The play was published and given to the girl's counselor and to the Students Against Drunk Driving group at the school.

Dictation

Dictation can be a successful strategy with reluctant writers. Here are three possibilities:

1. As described under Language Experience, the learner dictates something to the tutor who transcribes it to be used later as reading material with the learner.

2. The tutor transcribes an account the learner has given to a tape recorder. Listening by way of a tape can help a learner see the relationship between oral language and print. The process is especially helpful for a learner who can tell a good story but cannot write it down.

3. A learner listens and transcribes his own story after taping it on a recorder. With the tape, the learner can stop or replay sections as often as needed.

Taping a Story

In addition to using a tape recorder as discussed above, students can tape material they wish to read or dramatize, thus enjoying the act of spontaneous creation without the labor of writing a first draft. As they begin to refine the material, they can always refer to the recording to see how they are progressing. This way of using the tape recorder is helpful to groups as well as individuals. If possible, it is good to let the students operate the recorder.

Word Processing

The word processor has by now almost eclipsed the typewriter. Young learners, many of whom have grown up with computers, find it easy and fascinating to delete ideas, words, and phrases, to save files for later use, and to make multiple copies. One middle school learner used the computer to write directions for hunting and fishing for his tutor. He scored on two counts, (1) he was able to teach the tutor something she knew nothing about, and (2) because of the flexibility of word processing, he was able to correct and improve on his writing quickly and easily.

CHAPTER 10

MOTIVATION

Motivation is that which stimulates or provides incentive to the learner. Without laboring the point, it should be obvious that, with all else being equal, the highly motivated learner is more likely to succeed than the youth or adult who has no internal engine – read motivation. Extrinsic rewards may be part of the motivational activity, especially in the beginning. Intrinsic motivation – coming from within the learner – should be the most desirable outcome, however.

Research backs this, as in Newman's studies (1978, 1980, 1985) which show that motivation "is a critically important variable" in the learning process. What may not be clearly apparent, however, is the relationship between external and internal motivation.

Efforts at the Reading Practicum Center often start by emphasizing extrinsic motivation: developing progress charts, giving praise and attention, tutors reading to learners, rewards that allow learners to operate equipment or take home a tutor-owned book, and so forth.

Ultimately, as learners share reading activities in an interest area, read for a learner-centered purpose, participate in the fun of choral reading, or initiate a learner-selected or developed game, extrinsic motivation will merge into intrinsic motivation.

Recognizing the need to differentiate between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, learner-tested motivational ideas are presented in the following paragraphs starting with extrinsic considerations but recognizing that intrinsic motivation is the eventual goal.

Reading in Interest Area

Encouraging reading in an interest area enhances motivation for reading by helping students feel worthwhile and valued. Some students need particular guidance in this because they come from families where parents do not read, do not understand how important it is for the reader to want to read a text. These students need to discover that there are materials they can read in their interest area and at their reading level. They need to feel the camaraderie of others interested in the same things they are. Significantly, it is well known in Reading education that learners can often read two or three grade levels above their instructional reading level when reading in an area of special interest and experience. Such positive reading goes a long way in enhancing self-esteem.

A learner will often become self-motivated if he is encouraged to find and read books in his area of interest. Children's librarians can be very helpful. It is important that learners be introduced to the school librarian. When shown the reading level and interests of learners, the librarian can help them choose appropriate books as well as explain other uses of the library.

Many learners have never been to a public library. A field trip to the local library, including parents if possible, can be a significant event of long-lasting value to the entire family.

Another way to motivate the desire to read is to bring to class books known to be of particular interest to the students. A few moments discussing the contents of the books with an individual or group may pique interest. Choices may then be made of books to be read later during quiet reading time or at home.

If a learner is reading below his grade level, it may be difficult to find reading material that matches his interest and ability to read. Rewriting difficult material of special interest in simpler language can be helpful. And students always love reading a language-experience story that includes their thoughts and adventures. Within a calm, trusting atmosphere where student interests are noticed and built upon, remarkable changes can occur in academic achievement.

Progress Charts

Progress charts offer a visual record of a learner's achievements. And, as the number of pages or books read grows, so does the learner's motivation (intrinsic) and self-concept. Such charts can be used for many purposes: learning new sight words, developing a vocabulary, or recording written stories. Also, charts can take many forms and be used to record individual or group activities.

Progress charts for an individual should take into account a learner's interests. The chart can be as varied as a hockey field, baseball diamond, earring tree, or dinosaur.

If the goal is to develop sight vocabulary, the learner might add a brick – with a word on it – to the skeletal picture of a clubhouse. A goal demanding more engagement over time, say reading a whole book, could advance the learner one base on the baseball diamond, with four books – a home run – leading to a special treat. For the earring tree, an earring, perhaps simulated out of paper, could be attached and rewards given when the tree is full. With a dinosaur, the neck could grow by adding sections for each book read. In one summer class, a learner's dinosaur grew to such proportions that the feet were on the floor and the neck reached to the ceiling, with each section of growth containing the title of the book read by the learner. The learners were delighted and visitors to the classroom were impressed!

The incremental advancements on a progress chart should challenge the learner without limiting his confidence in achieving the goal. Of course, the chart should not be too easy, either. The tutor must, therefore, consider with care the size of increments, the number of pages or books to be read, and so forth, depending on the reading level, interests, and characteristics of the learner. A high school freshman reading at a second grade level charted the number of pages he read. When he reached 200 pages the tutor treated him at a local fast food restaurant. Within five months he read 1900 pages!

Group progress charts are also powerful motivators. A caterpillar, on which students added a different color circle for each book read, worked wonders in one class. The caterpillar grew as each child wrote on a colored circle the title, author, and number of pages read. With one student, willingness to read increased dramatically as the rapidly expanding caterpillar neared where he was sitting.

To reinforce learning, time should be allotted for students to "show and tell" what they have been doing. The teacher may want to initiate such sharing: "I see that Becky climbed another mountain by reading three books last week. Isn't that terrific!" And this leads to the next section.

Praise and Attention

"Some individuals act by an impelled innate curiosity. Thus . . . it is important to consider how to bring out and support the natural self-motivation in learners" (Newman, L525 Manual, 1986). A good way to do this is through praise and individual attention.

Many learners are starved for attention. Adults with long hours of work to do at home often have little time to give individual attention to their children. Nevertheless, such children usually bloom even with small amounts of praise and attention. They are eager to please and highly motivated when honest praise and attention are given their efforts. Sometimes the smallest successful step needs to be noted in order that a child's negative self-concept be countered. Praise, however, should never be bestowed unless fairly earned. As a child becomes internally motivated and self-concept grows, reinforcement through praise and attention will lessen – but it should never be dropped altogether. We all need encouragement from time to time.

Tutor Reads to Learner

Learners who have been regularly read to at home usually grasp the fundamentals of reading quickly. For those who have not had this home experience, it is especially important that they be read to by the tutor. And all students enjoy a good story well read.

Choose a story in a learner's area of interest but which is one or two grades above his reading level. Discuss the events, characters, and possible outcome of the story as the reading progresses. Keep track of the learner's prediction to see later if it matches the actual outcome of the story.

Rewards

"Good job! You have earned twenty points." This student actually received two rewards: the verbal praise of his teacher as well as the twenty points. Rewards are usually highly motivating for the reluctant reader. They should be kept simple and inexpensive, however. Stickers, pencils, funny erasers, or charts designed to fit learner interests are some possibilities.

Sometimes seeing the number of books or pages grow on a progress chart will be all the reward the learner needs.

Use of Equipment

Being allowed to operate equipment such as tape recorders, computers (especially word processors), and VCRs is often highly motivating to learners. Even those reluctant to be recorded will participate when asked to help.

Tape recorders can be used in several ways as a motivating activity. Older students can tape stories for younger students to hear or as a "read-along." Learners who do not read fluently can read along with taped stories to improve their fluency. For learners reluctant to write, stories can be taped and processed by the tutor for revision by the learner. Learners respond positively as they see and hear themselves improve through this activity.

For the reluctant writer, a word processor can be motivating. A seventh grade learner, unwilling to write, enjoyed putting chapters for a personal book on a word processor. He would rush into the room, sit down at the computer, and write the next section of his book without a word from his tutor.

Permission to Take Books Home

Many hesitant readers are reluctant to take books home. They show indifference to books brought to the class to read and shrug off the suggestion that they finish the book at home. As their self-confidence grows, however, they may become motivated to read more and take books home to read to oneself or the family. One boy did not ask to take a book home until the last class. It was a book on unusual plants which his tutor had worked with during every class. Apparently he could not stand the idea of not seeing the book again.

Whatever strategy is followed in encouraging outside reading, be sure to keep careful records of where the books go. You need this information should an unreturned book have to be replaced. In one situation, during a year of checking out hundreds of books to children in two schools, not one was lost. Sometimes checkins and checkouts took about twenty minutes of class time, but it was worth it. One second grader who had never read a book before, read ninety-four during the semester, taking home three or four each day.

Field Trips

"All together now – what do you need to bring to class tomorrow? A tent, a sleeping-bag, five pairs of socks, and a permission slip. Right!" It is always fun to go places, and there is nothing like a field trip to stimulate fresh thought about learning. If a student both sees and reads about something, the impact on thinking and the desire to learn should be significant.

A group of summer school students was interested in rocks. They had started individual collections and done some reading about rocks. Their teacher arranged a trip to a road-cut a few miles from the school that contained several types of rocks, and, best of all, geodes. The field trip motivated more reading when they returned to school.

Field trips do not have to be elaborate nor take all day. Many trips can be made to places of interest a short distance from school: parks, museums, city hall, old houses, and so on. The point is, as Edgar Dale described years ago (Dale, 1946): "First-hand seeing makes for vivid learning. Vivid learning is apt to motivate further learning."

The strategies discussed above are intended to help teachers see the importance of choosing appropriate extrinsic motivational activities for their learners – activities that should lead them to become self-motivated. Intrinsic motivation is innate to everyone, and the purpose of the following activities is to help students discover this.

Sharing, Reading, Writing, and Knowledge

"Carol, I tried to get Stuart to read today, but every time I suggested a book, he put his head down and wanted to take a nap. What should I do?" Sometimes the best approach for reaching a reluctant reader, is to have him read his own writing. Learners feel success when asked to share their own writing. This success is in itself a motivating, gathering force that moves them forward.

Another way of sharing reading is to ask a student to read to a group of younger children. While gaining confidence himself, the older student serves as a model for the younger ones.

Reading for a Purpose

"Why do I have to read this?" is often asked by unwilling readers. It seems hard to become a better reader if reading appears to be an assignment with little or no purpose – at least to the student. Therefore, before making a reading assignment, a purpose, from the learner's point of view, should be established. The purpose should link to the learner's interests. If the learner likes to tinker with cars, for example, a decent purpose from his point of view might be, "Steve, with all you know about cars, can you figure out, from reading this next section, if the author is describing a foreign or domestic make. That may help us understand why the main character was having difficulty finding a garage."

Sometimes a simple statement about the content of the reading is enough: "See if you can discover why the engine wouldn't start after the trip to the gravel pit." Or, in a content area, make a list of all the things the students already know about an area, and then list the things they would like to know. This could also be done in the form of a semantic web (Heimlich & Pittelman, 1986). With the list in hand, they can fill in the unknowns as they discover the answers. Naturally not all questions will be answered in any one text. Thus finding answers from other sources can of itself be broadening.

Ideally, students read for their own purposes. A second grader, for example, wanted to build a model microscope to share with his classmates. He read the directions for building a model and then read how to make slides to use with it. The purposeful reading he had done was very different from just filling in blanks on purple dittos or workbook pages.

Choral Reading

Choral reading often occurs spontaneously when group enthusiasm takes over – a whole group reading together. This reading of the same material at one time is not only fun but often supports a faltering reader. The timid one can try sounds and pronunciations within the group without being noticed. In this way such a student can learn to trust his own judgement.

Choral reading can also teach students to be more expressive. Class readings of short poems, essays or quotations, varying tone and intensity, can lead students to enjoy reading a variety of authors that might previously have been inaccessible (Heilman, 1986).

Three second graders enjoyed reading in chorus. At the end of the reading, they were asked in turn what they did when they came to a word they did not know. Each answer was different. One said he sounded it out, another looked at the picture, the third said, in substance, that he used a word according to the context. In the next choral reading session each boy tried out a different tactic for figuring out new words. In this case both extrinsic (peer influence) and intrinsic elements motivated the boys

Games

Most students like playing games. This can be a natural tie-in to reading and writing activities. It is easy to adapt commercial games or make games to fit the needs of learners by laminating a piece of construction paper with a reading game drawn on it, making word or phrase cards, and finding small objects to move. A learner may like to make games, including writing the rules, to share with other classmates. A group of three fourth graders enjoyed making a game with pop-up players that could move in slots on the board. While most games need not be this complicated, they can, nevertheless, be a wonderful vehicle for supporting student interests and imagination, as well as building student motivation.

The reader is referred to the discussion of "Board Games" and "Word Games" under Functional Language (Ch. 6).

CHAPTER 11

SELF-CONCEPT

Self-concept enhancement involves activities that boost the learner's self-esteem. Students with low self-concept often feel little control over their own experience, fail to take responsibility for their actions, and attribute their lack of success to outside factors. Not infrequently they have deep emotional problems: fear of continued failure, resistance to learning, hostility to authority, discouragement leading to depression, and dependence on the wrong influences.

It is not surprising, then, that such students come to an instructional setting with a strong negative attitude about reading. Therefore, if a learner's self-esteem is to be raised and his attitudes improved, the instructor must assure the possibility of success during the course of each lesson. The following proven strategies offer ways to do this.

Oral Reading for a Purpose

In many classrooms "round robin" reading – children in a circle reading orally in turn – is a daily procedure. And for some children the practice of saying words aloud bears its own reward. Generally, however, effective oral reading can have a larger purpose. At the primary level purposes for oral reading might be to produce a puppet show or a mock radio program.

If a selection from a basal reader is to be read in a group, establish the purpose beforehand: "Find out why the detective searched the grocery story after the fire." Afterward the question can be asked, "Did the account turn out the way you thought it would?" (See other ideas for group reading under "Choral Reading" under Motivation, Ch. 10.)

For older readers, the purpose for improving confidence and reading skills could be to have the learner read a published story – or one he wrote himself – to a younger child. Another way is to tape record the story for younger children to hear. Rehearsing the lines of a play with other students is a positive purpose. Whatever the purpose, and there are many other possibilities, it should be meaningful to the learners, enhancing self-concept, and not just an end in itself.

Sharing Reading and Writing

Sharing can promote self-esteem by developing in students a feeling of belonging – of comradeship. This is especially true when students share with others some personal experience or expertise. One group of sixth graders each week prepared stories and other activities to share with a group of first graders. Both benefited.

Another easy way to build self-esteem is for students to read from, or discuss with others, books they especially like and perhaps have chosen independently. This could be done through informal book talks in small groups or with the whole class. Students can be placed in a homogeneous group to share mutual interests, or in a heterogeneous group to broaden interests. A small group of second graders eagerly read the book choices of others after their interests were piqued during informal sharings.

Sharing one's own writing also builds self-esteem. A high school freshman wanted the book he had written to fit into his back jean pocket so he could always have it with him to share with others. A fifth grader had a lively interest in sports, so, with tutor support, he wrote a sports page each week which he eagerly shared with his classmates.

The self-esteem of one student was raised when he wrote a book about hunting and fishing which he then read to his tutor who knew little about such outdoor activities. A vivid example of this teacher-learner flip has been growing for several years in those elementary schools where computer-use is an everyday activity. In these cases it is often the parent who receives instruction from the child. Teachers, therefore, who build on a youngster's prowess almost always see measurable changes in self-concept.

Language-experience accounts dictated to and produced by tutor or teacher, or original stories written by individuals or small groups of learners, can become part of a classroom library. Imagine having your book in a library for others to read!

Retelling for a Purpose

Stories read or written by learners can be retold for various purposes. A learner might retell a published story in writing for use in a class newspaper or magazine, or to be placed on a bulletin board for others to see as they choose books to read. Also, the learner might share a story through oral retelling with a group of peers or younger children. As the learner becomes "expert" on the story, recalling key facts and describing them colorfully and in proper order, he gains self-confidence when knowing he is doing a good job. If a student is working with another student, the teacher should listen in periodically to offer helpful, but not intrusive, suggestions.

Reading Wordless, Easy, or Picture Books

Reading wordless, easy, or picture books helps students "get started" in the reading process.

Wordless books, made up of pictures only, let the student tell a story based on what the pictures seem to suggest. The learner's story, written in sentences to match each illustration, can be read later to the teacher, classmates, or the school librarian. While the learner reads the pictures, he learns to recognize picture or graphic cues, to make predictions, apply previous knowledge, and understand the conventions of how a book is set up. The learner becomes personally involved in sharing opinions and constructing a story.

Easy books with words, a plot, a complete story, and written at different reading levels offer the possibility for early reading success for many students. However, a fine line must be walked in selecting these books. A reader will be turned off if a story is too easy. This can be prevented by having the learner read the easy books to younger students. A middle grader once got started in reading Dr. Seuss's Hop on Pop, but generally older students do not want to be seen with "baby books."

Picture books – books in which pictures predominate over words – may at first open meaning to readers before they are confident with print material. This is especially true for children used to the fast pace of television wherein they have not had to deal with the abstractions of print. Getting meaning quickly encourages success and enhances self-concept.

Bookmaking

Bookmaking is a positive experience for children who are learning to read. When a student reads a book he wrote, he can feel immediate success as a reader. The student can also take the book home for friends and family to see and experience the satisfaction of having others recognize what he has done. (See Language Experience, Ch. 9, for other bookmaking ideas, and Appendix B for instructions on making books.)

Watch the enthusiasm for reading grow as students collect pictures to include in their books. One student who liked rabbits not only brought in pictures of rabbits the day he was to write his book, he also wore his favorite yellow shorts with a rabbit on the left pocket.

There are many ways to make books: hard cover books made with cardboard, dry-mount paper and fabric; soft cover books with construction paper or wallpaper tied together with yarn placed in punched holes on the sides; booklets including photographs or pupil illustrations, or cut-out commercial photos, are a few possibilities.

Magazines, newspapers, crayons, colored pencils, chalk, watercolors, or comic books are examples of materials useful in illustrating books. A letter might be sent home to parents requesting they contribute to the bookmaking resource center. Art departments in a school are a good source for ideas.

Bookmaking is an easy way to move students, who thought they could not read, into an "I think I can" attitude. Bookmaking is a win-win situation. Both teacher and students experience success. It is an excellent way to help learners build confidence in their own reading abilities.

Teacher-Written or Rewritten Materials

A teacher can often successfully reach learners through the use of teacher-written materials tailored to interest and reading level. Original materials might include a short story or continuation of a favorite story written at the learner's reading level. Effective stories often include the learner as a character in the story regardless of his age or learning level.

Rewritten materials, adapted from a text beyond the learner's reading level, often supply real interest to a learner who might otherwise not have access to advanced discussions.
An effective way to rewrite is to –

1. Read the material,
2. Lay it aside,
3. Write the information contained in the original, using your own words.
4. Consider the learner's independent reading level. (See "Rewriting materials" under Interest, Ch. 8.)

A tutor for a seventh grade learner who was an avid hunter and fisherman rewrote several articles from *Field and Stream* magazine and put them into book form for the student. He was pleased because what had seemed impossible to read was now possible.

Praise and Attention

"Good job. You did much better than last time!" "What a well-developed story!" Praise and attention go hand-in-hand because genuine praise grabs student attention. Such thoughtfulness helps students muster the enthusiasm to keep going, improve their reading ability, write better stories, and sustain interest in learning.

Most students thrive under deserved praise and attention, especially those who are not performing well. They especially need to be recognized for their efforts or abilities. Some students, however, unused to the limelight, may draw back if praise is too lavish or unwarranted. Therefore, be specific when acknowledging achievement. "This was good because . . ." "In all the questions you answered, you found the main idea; you were really thinking."

Many learners blossom when receiving individual attention. A third grader reading at the primer level and with very low self-esteem, stayed in the background as much as possible in the classroom. That is, until he wrote a language experience story about his latest baseball game. He became the star as he shared his book with the teacher, classmates, and parents. Best of all, he could actually read his book.

Developing Independence

Some people are learners and others followers, but regardless of personal inclinations, all people should value their own thoughts and initiatives. Students learn to feel better about themselves when the natural desire for independence is reached. For example, a second-grade learner looked to her teacher every time she came to a word she did not recognize. She was completely dependent on someone else helping her figure out words. After being shown several cues, such as pictures, beginning sounds, context, and the teacher refusing to say the word, the student began to figure out words on her own. She became much more self-confident in her own ability to read. All this occurred in a half-hour session.

Teaching students how to use resources – libraries, dictionaries, newspapers, catalogues, encyclopedias, and other source material – helps them become independent thinkers and workers. Such a student is more likely to accomplish what he sets his mind to than one who leans heavily on others. The teacher who models independent academic behavior, provides means for helping learners read, write, and think on their own, and lets them learn from each other, is likely to produce learners with many strengths.

Dictation

When a student dictates something to a tutor or teacher, as in a language-experience account, the student, for the moment, takes the initiative. This becomes an effective step in developing the student's confidence and self-esteem.

Sometimes a learner does not dictate a story in logical sequence but lets the ideas lead randomly to whatever comes to mind. The teacher, when transcribing, should leave the order as dictated. Later an orderly progression can evolve as the learner reconsiders, changes, deletes, or adds to the text by rewriting or learning to cut and paste. A high school student thoroughly enjoyed reconstructing his dictated story to make it "right." He even added ideas to it to make it a "better story."

Dictation can also be taped and transcribed later – and, again, just as the learner tells it. Some learners have transcribed their own dictated stories. A third grader dictated a letter on tape as he was having problems writing his ideas on paper. He then played the tape a sentence at a time and wrote his letter. He loved working the tape recorder and was happy with his letter.

Letter Writing

It is fun to get mail! And this is one of the reasons why a learner might want to write a letter: to friends, or family members who live at a distance – or even to one's mother, father, or sibling right at home. Pen-pal letters or letters asking for information often lead to friendships that have lasted over months, even years of correspondence. (See Functional Language, Ch. 6, for additional letter-writing ideas.)

CHAPTER 12

STUDY SKILLS

Study skills involve activities that help students manage learning in the most effective way. These may include time- and information- management skills, such as scheduling homework or learning to file. Understanding and applying appropriate study skills are essential for the remedial reader – as they are for all students. Study skills can turn a frustrating task into a manageable one. To know where and how to look for the information one needs; to understand how to use various textbook aids such as charts, graphs, and indices; to know the efficient way to read a textbook; and be able to organize information through note taking, outlining, summarizing, and pattern recognition can make the task seem possible. The following offer various strategies for instruction in study skills.

Reference Skills

Dictionaries are a useful study aid in several areas: word recognition, definitions, spelling, parts of speech, pronunciation, synonyms, etc.

Find a dictionary at the learner's reading level. This may be a picture dictionary or one developed for high school use. Be sure the learner knows the alphabet and can alphabetize, say, a list of words. Show how the dictionary is organized alphabetically. Then, together, practice finding words in the dictionary the learner knows. Discuss whether each word would be near the beginning, middle, or end of the alphabet. Show how the guide words simplify the process of finding words.

After the learner becomes adept at doing this, show how to choose the definition needed if more than one is given. Write the word in a sentence so that context can aid in selecting the right definition. Discuss a word like "minute," for example, which has two meanings and two pronunciations. This, of course, leads to understanding the diacritical marks that explain pronunciation. Some care should be taken, however, not to overwhelm the learner with the need to understand all these markings right away.

Dictionaries that a learner compiles from words he wishes to save and refer to are a practical resource. As a starter, give each child a blank booklet that contains enough pages to accommodate the alphabet and the possibility of including art work. Explain this organizational setup and then describe how words the child wants to remember, or words he particularly likes, can be entered in the booklet. If available, show a dictionary made by a former student, or a mock-up by the teacher. Stress how the booklet is more appealing when it includes illustrations collected, drawn, or painted by the owner. Parents often treasure the dictionaries their children have made.

School (or city) libraries are wonderful, even exciting, places for discovery. For efficient use, however, certain library skills must be understood. Teach students how to use a card catalog or computer filing system, the Reader's Guide, vertical files, and other aids. Show how they can help answer questions raised in class, find information on assigned projects and research papers, or just lead one on a personal quest for knowledge. In addition, the opportunity to sit quietly in a library and read – books, poetry, periodicals – or, without distractions, organize one's thoughts about something, even dream, can often have a salutary effect beyond all measuring.

If students take a field trip to a public library, invite their parents. Some parents may never have visited a library, so learning about its use is important since they will be the ones to make future trips with their children. Help students get their own library cards. Ask a librarian to show where material appropriate to the children's interests and reading level can be located. Encourage students to feel free to ask help from librarians and their assistants.

A sixth grade girl with considerable equestrian experience, chose horses as her subject for an assigned research paper. After the tutor showed her how to use the card catalog, she discovered new information and confirmed what she already knew. In addition, the layout of the books she read gave her ideas on how to organize her paper. Previously, writing research papers had been frustrating, but now the assignment went forward smoothly and the girl enjoyed the experience.

Textbook Parts

When a student is introduced to a textbook, it is important to show what study aids the book contains and how they can be used: table of contents, index, glossary, bibliography, or, possibly, a brief biographical listing. In a social studies text, for example, the meaning of the word "longitude," which might trouble someone, can be found in the glossary, and the index will list where else in the text the word appears.

As the text is read, charts, graphs, diagrams, data tables, maps, pictures, and so forth, are additional study aids the learner should know how to use. For younger students, having them draw maps showing how to get from their home to the school, or keep a weather graph over time, can increase appreciation for those aids presented in the textbook.

Textbook Reading Techniques

A textbook is not read the same way as a story book. The organization of each is different. Titles, even subtitles, may seem similar, but chapter summaries, study questions, and alternative readings are unique to a textbook. To help students understand the purpose for reading a chapter, have them read the chapter summary and study questions first. Then, as they read, have them predict from the subtitles heading each section what the content will be. When they finish reading, ask if their predictions were accurate. Student-prepared questions listed on 3x5 cards can be kept at hand as the student reads. (See "Setting a purpose" and "Predicting" under Comprehension, Ch. 5.)

Note taking, outlining, and summarizing are other techniques that can assist learners as they read a textbook. Writing a summary of a section or chapter helps students see the relationship of facts through such words as *and*, *but*, *when*, and *then*. Outlining also points up relationships. Note taking helps readers keep track of and clarify significant points.

Organization

An efficient student knows how to organize material. This can be learned through the study system SQ3R (skim, question, read, recite, review) or through complete descriptions of other study systems in the L525 *Language Practicum Manual*, Reading Practicum Center, Indiana University, Bloomington. It is important to match the system with the learner.

If organizing is a problem for some learners, begin with the basics: pencil, paper, books, and neat folders for each content area. One second grader had difficulty remembering to bring his materials to the tutoring session. To remedy this, the tutor set up a baseball-diamond progress chart. The student scored a run every time he completed the assignment and remembered to bring it to the session. If he forgot, the tutor scored a run. It was not long before the tutor had a string of scoreless innings, and the student a string of home runs.

The ability to think structurally, which takes form as outlining, mentioned above as significant in reading a text, becomes vital as students move through school fulfilling progressively more complex writing assignments. In recent years an activity known variously as semantic mapping, mapping, mind mapping or webbing,has become popular as an introductory activity to the consideration of a new topic for study (Heimlich and Pittelman, 1986). It serves as an excellent and natural lead into outlining.

The activity opens with brainstorming about a topic. The team leader records ideas on white- or blackboard around a core topic, say "rocks." As she asks for ideas that fit with rocks she records these around the word rock, arranging the ideas visually into appropriate subordinates. As the questions progress – "How many different rocks can you name?," "What kinds of rocks do we have in this area?," "What do rocks tell us about our history?," and so forth, the leader records the suggestions. She might even use colored markers to more vividly suggest the relationships between the most significant words and their supporting details. While the learners are sharing ideas, the team leader is learning about their knowledge of rocks, getting ideas as to how the discussion might proceed. From this initial exploration of the relationship between ideas, the leader can move into considering major and minor headings, parallel structures, questions vs. topical headings, and other aspects of outlining.

This kind of thinking about a topic is more intriguing for most young learners than the rather stiff and formal listing of items usually included in an outline. It is also more graphically representative of the thought processes which occur early in the exploration of a topic.

Although semantic mapping is often included topically under the study of comprehension, it is included under Study Skills in this book because it not only offers a painless and "fun" way to explore a topic, but it also gives the instructor an excellent way of evaluating a learner's grasp of a topic.

CHAPTER 13

IMPLEMENTATION

After a teacher or tutor completes a learner profile, the responses are entered into the FIRST Reading computer program. The program then matches these responses with accumulated learner data in the knowledge base, decides which cluster of learners the new learner is most like, and recommends appropriate instructional focuses.

The recommendation will include one or more focuses from the eight possibilities: comprehension, functional language, interest, games, language experience, motivation, self-concept, and study-skills. The program may recommend only one focus, say, motivation 95%, or more than one focus, perhaps –

motivation 45%,
functional language 38%, and
language experience 11%.

As many as four focuses may be offered in the recommendation. It may be noted above that the percentages do not total 100. Usually only the first three or, at most, four focuses are considered since the focuses with smaller percentages could not be given realistic instructional attention.

The percentages tell how close the learner is to a cluster of learners in the knowledge base. The learner with motivation (95%) as a recommendation, for example, is closest to a cluster for whom motivational strategies were the most successful in teaching them to read. The learner with motivation (45%), functional language (38%), and language experience (11%) as recommended instructional areas, is similar to learners in three separate clusters. He is most like those for whom motivational strategies made the difference in learning to read, a little less like those for whom functional language strategies made a difference, and only somewhat like learners for whom language experience strategies made a difference.

Even though motivation is a recommended focus for both learners, the instructional program for each will be different. The emphasis for the first learner should center entirely around activities that are motivational in character. With the second learner functional language and language experience activities should be included with the motivational activities, but with ongoing evaluation as to which focus is the most successful.

For some learners interest may be a FIRST Reading recommendation, even though for all learners the role of individual interests must be acknowledged and included, however incidentally, in instruction. The teacher may turn to the use of an Informal Interest Inventory (III) to discover the interests of the whole class. But its use is absolutely essential with those troubled readers whose recommended focus is interest.

The III should include questions about the learner's out-of-school activities with friends and family, television shows watched, collections kept or hobbies, types of material read, and the like. Sample IIIs are included in Appendix C. Teachers should feel free to make up their own inventory, or adjust those provided to fit their needs.

Because the troubled reader has probably experienced failure many times, it is important that each instructional activity include the possibility of success. Make sure that all material is at the learner's reading level. A rule of thumb is that the learner should not have problems with more than five words to a page. In constructing an individualized program, read, with the learner in mind, the sections of Chapters 4-12 that pertain to recommendations. Choose the most appropriate activities for the learner, or construct activities that fulfill the spirit of the respective sections.

For example, in the section on motivation there are twelve strategies listed: progress charts; praise and attention; tutor reads to learner; rewards; use of equipment; permission to take books home; field trips; sharing, reading, writing, and knowledge; reading in interest area; reading for a purpose; choral reading; and games. Some of these will be more appropriate to the learner than others. The choice depends on: the learner's current reading level, his interests, the availability of reading material at home, whether field trips support his interests, and so forth. Choices will also depend on whether the learner is taught individually or as part of a group.

Often a teacher may have several troubled readers who need the special assistance of FIRST Reading recommended focuses. For one child the focus might be interest (99%), for a second motivation and language experience (54% & 40%), for a third functional language and interest (68% & 28%), and so on. Even though the focuses, or focus, for each child may differ, the teacher need not always work individually with each child. Instead, after placing the children in a small group, the teacher could work, say, with thematic units or unit development projects, emphasizing, as part of the group's work, individualized focus(es) or strategies.

Should, in a unit about animals, the children express interest in bears, they could read books about bears (interest) – both real and imaginary depending on grade and reading levels. A progress chart (motivation) could be designed using paw prints (interest) to indicate the books read by members of the group. The chart might be maintained by the child with functional language as a recommended focus. Letters to a library or other sources could be sent requesting information about bears – even a letter to Smokey the Bear (functional language). Again, this letter-writing activity should consider a child's grade and reading levels.

In addition, perhaps a field trip to a zoo to observe bears (interest and motivation) could be taken. In such a case, the children should be involved in planning the field trip. They might, for example, write letters to their parents telling them of the pending trip and asking for volunteer chaperones. Afterwards letters could be sent expressing appreciation for their participation as well as thank-you notes to others, including the zoo personnel, who had a part in the trip's success.

Related activities might include creating and presenting a puppet show about bears, using bears in developing a semantic web, writing stories with bears (but not The Three Bears!) as main characters, or making books containing bear stories by individual students or others which could be read to the class and then placed in the classroom or school library.

Most of these strategies, which are discussed in earlier chapters in this book, are not meant to be all inclusive, but starting points for creative teaching. Because classroom time is limited by many constraints, the teacher should not feel that a child's individualized recommendations must necessarily be carried out on a one-to-one basis. Many of the teachers involved in the Ohio projects found they could work successfully with the FIRST-assisted children in groups, or as part of the class as a whole, if the specific recommendations for each child were kept in mind.

CHAPTER 14

FIRST READING: EVALUATING AFFECT, ATTITUDE, AND SUCCESS

A New Set of Criteria

Over the years, Reading Practicum Center instructors and assisting college students have observed an interesting progression from ineffective to effective reading among their learners. Positive changes in affect – in the general emotional outlook of a learner – appeared to be the important first step in moving toward reading effectiveness. After this came improvement in attitude. As learners experienced success in reading, however small, they began to lose the fear of failure which they may have experienced many times. This, in turn, helped them overcome timidity, anger, and moodiness (affective responses). Shrinking violets became certain they could succeed (attitudinal responses). Immediate responses to the learning process were more positive – including a willingness to participate in instructional activities.

Chapters 5-12 describe most successful focuses for troubled learners and how to bring it about through the use of FIRST Reading. This chapter addresses the possibility of *documenting* success by observing affect and attitude changes in learners before changes in academic success are noted through traditional testing processes.

Examples throughout this book demonstrate that confidence emerges as learners realize that progress really has occurred. With the aid of recommended strategies – including progress charts and verbal praise (though always being sure the encouraging word is earned) – measurable progress has been achieved. It has been pointed out that instructors should know a learner's interests, then couple this knowledge with material written at the learner's reading level, at his instructional level when working with a tutor, and at an independent reading level when the learner is on his own. Once learners experience even a modicum of progress and success, they become willing to try the next step. The next step here is to offer the criteria used to describe high, medium, and low changes in affect, attitude, and success.

Criteria and Examples

Affect. Changes in affect are deemed *high* if learners show very positive feelings at the end of the instructional program, many times demonstrated by the complete reversal of a previous emotion.

Affect changes are designated *medium* if, by the end of the program, they are more positive than at the start of the program, but, in the instructor's judgement, there is still room to grow.

Affect changes are judged *low* if negative feelings at the beginning of the program have changed little or not at all by the end.

Attitude. As with changes in affect, attitude changes are judged *high* if there is a positive outlook at the end of the program demonstrated by reversal of negative attitudes held at the start of the program.

Attitude changes are deemed *medium* if, at the end of the program, the learner is judged to be more positive in outlook but still having room to grow.

Low success learners are those who have made little or no progress in the classroom.

Success. The criteria for success, although not necessarily measured by standardized tests, require that there be objective improvement in the learner's classroom performance. Unlike the more subjective changes in affect and attitude, academic performance must be documented, such as changes in reading level or successful movement forward in a basal reading series.

Learners deemed to have *high* success must show significant growth in academic pursuits. They must be able to read at a higher level at the end of the program than they did at the beginning, or have a higher grade on a report card.

Medium success is not necessarily reflected in achieving a higher reading level or improved grade, but, based on teacher observation, the learner's classroom performance has improved. Positive changes in affect and attitude may be included in this judgment.

Learners deemed to be *low* in success have made little or no progress in the program.

Tables 1, 2 and 3 provide criteria and examples of changes in affect, attitude, and success.

Practicality of Using These Criteria

As anyone knows who has worked successfully with troubled readers, their progress does not reflect swiftly in improved test scores. Documenting incremental changes in affect and attitude through anecdotal records does, however, prove practical for learners as well as teachers. Learners are not held to unachievable goals, but are gently reassured that they are making progress. Teachers, on their part, take encouragement in recording initial affect and attitude indicators, the precursors of the later, and more academically recognized signs of progress.

Conclusion

Providing a means for documenting change *during* instruction of troubled readers leads to the conclusion that there are significant steps to take before standardized testing be considered. Such record keeping encourages the learner and the family as well. It offers hope. Careful observation and documentation can translate hope into reality – a major step toward achieving Howard Gardner's "... vision of the optimal match between student and material" (1983, p. 390).

Table 1

Criteria & Examples for Changes in Affect (1992-1995)

1992	1993	1994	1995
High: Very positive feelings at end of project			
Sept: quiet, shy May: has come out of shell, enjoys participating	Feb: sleepy, dislikes reading, angry, sad Jun: happy, content, likes to read	Oct: sad a lot of the time May: happy and upbeat most of the time	Nov: hates everything, especially reading May: enjoys reading, happier
Sept: strong will, moody May: very happy, high self-esteem, more cooperative	Feb: sneaky, disobedient, strong willed Jun: happy, obeys directions, listens, works in group well	Oct: very shy May: eager to read, really enjoys it	Nov: upset, frowned often May: likes to come to school
Sept: quiet, hesitant, fidgety May: confident in her abilities, loves to hear stories			
Medium: More positive feelings at end of project, still room to grow			
Sept: little emotion May: more pride in work	Feb: moody, bossy, strong dislike for rules Jun: less bossy & moody, likes to read	Oct: quiet, withdrawn May: quiet, but not as withdrawn, appears to enjoy school	Nov: lacks self-confidence May: still improving in self-confidence
Sept: very quiet, not eager May: more relaxed, enjoys class	Feb: loud, rowdy, opinionated Jun: more reserved most of the time	Oct: whiney May: more pleasant and cooperative	Nov: mostly pleasant, moody at times May: seems more confident
Sept: immature, seeks approval May: eager to share, wavering self-esteem			
Low: Feelings have changed little or not at all, negative			
Sept: unhappy, quarrelsome May: still down on self, immature	Feb: defiant, dislikes schools Jun: still defiant, disruptive	Oct: whiner, not excited about school May: preoccupied with life elsewhere	Nov: feels he can't do assigned work May: feels left out
Sept: bored, little interest May: becomes bored	Feb: sleeps, uninterested Jun: likes storytime, otherwise uninterested	Oct: moody, ready to fight May: still moody	Nov: gets along well with other students May: has not changed much
Sept: introverted May: shy, hesitant, makes up stories			

Table 2

Criteria & Examples for Changes in Attitude (1992-1995)

1992	1993	1994	1995
High: Very positive feelings at end of project			
Sept: generally negative May: very positive, knows he can be successful	Feb: negative, argumentative Jun: really puts forth effort	Oct: did not want to learn May: positive, hard worker	Nov: will try to avoid doing the work if too difficult May: does not give up, very motivated to learn
Sept: never volunteers, "shrinks" in seat May: positive, proud of herself and her work	Feb: evil and mean when corrected or shown how to do assignments Jun: accepting of criticism, helpful to others	Oct: positive about everything except reading May: proud of himself in reading	Nov: very negative toward reading May: shows he wants to learn
Sept: attempts to do work May: goal is to make the honor roll			
Medium: More positive feelings at end of project, still room to grow			
Sept: not motivated, "do we have to?" May: motivated more, takes more of a part in activities	Feb: semi-positive attitude, rushes through work Jun: feels better about own reading, writing	Oct: did not want to learn to read May: much more positive toward school	Nov: wants to do well, worries May: puts forth better effort
Sept: avoids reading May: tries harder, fears failure less	Feb: somewhat positive Jun: tries harder, needs positive encouragement	Oct: poor, blames others May: more positive, less moody	Nov: very unsure May: better attitude toward learning
Sept: does not read on his won May: more positive reading attitude			
Low: Feelings have changed little or not at all, negative			
Sept: goes with the flow May: "I don't care"	Feb: negative toward school work Jun: still negative	Oct: wants to play May: not serious about learning	Nov: cocky, spoiled, talks back May: willing to learn but thinks he knows it all already
Sept: does not participate May: seems to have lost all interest in school	Feb: negative toward work Jun: rather play than work	Oct: poor self-esteem May: negative toward all aspects of school	Nov: high frustration, fights May: totally against discipline, not much desire to improve
Sept: generally negative unless interested May: mixed			

Table 3

Criteria for Success

High	The learner who has shown high success will have made significant progress in his/her academic achievement. For example, he/she will now be reading on a higher level than in starting month, and/or have a higher grade in reading on the report card.
Medium	The learner will have made progress in the classroom but it will not necessarily be reflected in a higher reading level or grades. It will be based upon teacher observation and may include positive changes in affect and attitude.
Low	The learner will have made little or no progress in the classroom.

APPENDICES

A. Taxonomy and Learner Profile Sheet

B. Bookmaking

  1. How children can make their own books
  2. Bookbinding procedure

C. Informal Interest Inventories (III)

  1. III - Example for Grades 1-6
  2. III - Example for Grades 7-12

Taxonomy and Learner Profile Sheet

To complete a Learner Profile, choose the one response for each question that most accurately describes the learner. If more than one response applies, choose the one that has the greatest impact on the learner in relation to language learning. If there is insufficient evidence available to make a choice, choose "not able to judge." If none of the responses apply, choose "no evidence." See Chapter 3 for an explanation of Taxonomy.

1. What place does the learner hold in relation to siblings?

   1. Oldest child
   2. Middle child
   3. Youngest child
   4. Only child
   5. Twin or multiple
   8. Not able to judge
   9. No evidence

2. What level of education has the learner's mother completed?

   1. Eighth grade or less
   2. Ninth through less than twelfth
   3. High school diploma or GED
   4. Some college, vocational, or specialist training
   5. College degree
   6. Currently attending school
   8. Not able to judge
   9. No evidence

3. What level of education has the learner's father completed?

   1. Eighth grade or less
   2. Ninth through less than twelfth
   3. High school diploma or GED
   4. Some college, vocational, or specialist training
   5. College degree
   6. Currently attending school
   8. Not able to judge
   9. No evidence

4. What type of occupation does the learner's father have?

   1. Unskilled
   2. Skilled
   3. Highly Skilled
   4. Management
   5. Professional
   6. Househusband
   7. Student
   8. Not able to judge
   9. No evidence

5. Which of the following cultural qualities of the learner's father has the greatest impact on the learner?

   1. Education/positive
   2. Education/negative
   3. Occupation/positive
   4. Occupation/negative
   5. Cannot read/negative
   6. Reads to child/positive
   7. Reading model/positive
   8. Not able to judge
   9. No evidence

6. Which of the following cultural qualities of the learner's mother has the greatest impact on the learner?

   1. Education/positive
   2. Education/negative
   3. Occupation/positive
   4. Occupation/negative
   5. Cannot read/negative
   6. Reads to child/positive
   7. Reading model/positive
   8. Not able to judge
   9. No evidence

7. Which of the following interactions between learner and father has the greatest impact on the learner?

   1. Working together/positive
   2. Playing together/positive
   3. Cultural, educational, organizational activities/positive
   4. Cultural, educational, organizational activities/negative
   8. Not able to judge
   9. No evidence

8. Which of the following interactions between learner and mother has the greatest impact on the learner?

   1. Working together/positive
   2. Playing together/positive
   3. Cultural, educational, organizational activities/ positive
   4. Cultural, educational, organizational activities/negative
   8. Not able to judge
   9. No evidence

9. How old is the learner?
   1. 5 - 6
   2. 7 - 8
   3. 9 -10
   4. 11 - 12
   5. 13 - 14
   6. 15 - 16
   7. 17 - 18
   8. Not able to judge
   9. No evidence

10. Did the learner's parent(s) or surrogate read to the learner before he/she entered school?

   1. Yes, parent(s) read to child regularly
   2. No, parent(s) did not read to child regularly
   8. Not able to judge
   9. No evidence

11. What are the learner's reading habits?

    1. Does not read
    2. Reads only for survival (street signs, labels, etc.)
    3. Reads only what is required (for survival and school)
    4. Reads only school related materials
    5. Reads only what interests him/her
    6. Reads regularly
    8. Not able to judge
    9. No evidence

12. What is the learner's favorite school subject?

    1. English
    2. Social Studies
    3. Math
    4. Reading
    5. Health and Physical Education
    6. Home Economics or Shop
    7. Music/Art
    8. Science
    9. No evidence

13. When listening, at what level is the learner's ability to comprehend?

    1. Above grade level
    2. At grade level
    3. Below grade level
    8. Not able to judge
    9. No evidence

14. When reading, is the learner's ability to comprehend a strength?

    1. Yes, a strength
    2. No, average or weakness
    8. Not able to judge
    9. No evidence

15. Is the learner creative?

    1. Yes, a strength or average
    2. No, a weakness
    8. Not able to judge
    9. No evidence

16. Is the learner curious?

    1. Yes, a strength
    2. No, average or a weakness
    8. Not able to judge
    9. No evidence

17. Do any of the following cultural pressures have a negative impact on the learner?

    1. Father / alcoholism / negative
    2. Father / language or dialect / negative
    3. Mother / language or dialect / negative
    4. Parents / divorced / negative
    8. Not able to judge
    9. No evidence

18. Which of the following personality traits does the learner have?

    1. Reasonable self-concept
    2. Shy
    3. Lack self-confidence
    4. Show-off, cocky, constantly seeks attention
    5. Uncooperative and self-willed
    8. Not able to judge
    9. No evidence

19. Which of the following values self-motivate the learner?

    1. Interests
    2. Willingness to accept responsibility
    3. Wants to please (love)
    4. Success
    5. Competition
    6. Need for independence
    7. Religion
    8. Not able to judge
    9. No evidence

20. Which of the following values puts the greatest pressure on the learner?

1. Parental expectations/positive
2. Parental expectations/negative
3. Teacher expectations/positive
4. Teacher expectations/negative
5. Peer pressure/positive
6. Peer pressure/negative
7. Home situation/negative
8. Self-image (handicaps, retention, etc.)/negative
9. No evidence

Learner____________________
Date______________________

FIRST Reading

Learner Profile Sheet

The Learner Profile can be used to note the response number for each question in the Taxonomy.

Question	Response	Comments	Question	Response	Comments
1			11		
2			12		
3			13		
4			14		
5			15		
6			16		
7			17		
8			18		
9			19		
10			20		

Recommendations:

% ____ ____

% ____ ____

% ____ ____

% ____ ____

% ____ ____

Bookmaking

How children can make their own books. Student-made books can be bound with contact paper over strong cardboard, in snap-and-ring binders, or simply by stapling pages between colored cardboard and running a piece of opaque tape down the edge to the staples. Each method is useful, but each lacks the permanency and professional appearance that many child-produced books deserve.

The most durable and attractive of such books are made by binding sewn pages between cloth-covered cardboard held together by dry-mounting tissue or dry-backed cloth and masking tape. These books are not only sturdy and handsome, but often more striking than commercial books. Also, securely-bound children's books can circulate without fear they will fall apart.

Making cloth-bound books will prove relatively simple after one practices a few times following the directions outlined below. This should not take more than twenty minutes, and using a dry-mount press can reduce the time. The teacher, after learning the process, can show students how to do so.

Bookbinding Procedure

Materials:

1. Book pages (preferably sewn, but can be stapled about 1/4" from the edge).
2. Cardboard (medium weight poster board, heavier for large books).
3. Dry-mounting tissue or dry-backing cloth (any good photography shop will have these).
4. Cloth (dress-making ends, remnants, etc.).
5. Construction paper (12" x 18" is the most economical).
6. Masking tape.
7. Scissors.
8. Paper cutter.
9. Electric iron (and ironing board if possible).

Operation:

1. Cut cardboard: 2 pieces each ½" longer and 1/4" wider than the book pages.

2. Place cardboard pieces on cloth, leaving a space between covers wide enough for the pages to fit; leave at least a little finger's width so the covers will close flat. Taping the cardboard pieces in place will make cutting easier.

3. Cut cloth about 1" from outer edges of cover pieces.

4. Cut dry-mounting tissue the same size as the cloth.

5. Place tissue between cloth and cardboard.

6. Turn on iron to synthetic setting.

7. Fold in and press (iron) edges.

8. From construction paper cut end pieces (2) the same length as the book pages but more than twice as wide – at least 1" wide.

9. Cut tissue the same length as book pages and about 2" wider than the book pages.

10. Place tissue between an end piece and inside of book cover, matching the outside ends. The end pieces should be about 1/4" from the edges of cover. Press just the end edge right now. Fold end piece and tissue back even with inner edge of cardboard. Repeat at other end of cover.

11. Place pages in center. In two or three places tape from front page (must be blank) to cardboard (under end piece and tissue). Repeat from back page (best if it is also blank to cardboard).

12. Be sure pages are well fitted into middle section. Close book, tap the back binding on the table, straighten pages and end pieces. Put book flat and press front surface; lift rather than scoot iron from place to place (c. five minutes). Repeat on back surface – this step secures cloth and end pieces to cardboard and pages.

13. To be sure the tissue is securing book pages to end pieces, open the book and gently press end pieces.

14. Trim end pieces so they are even with the pages.

15. It is a good idea to adhere the end pieces to the front and back pages along the outer edges. Use strips of tissue or double-stick tape.

16. Titles and authors' names written on scraps of end pieces or cut from material can be adhered to the cover with tissue cut to match in size.

APPENDIX C

Informal Interest Inventory
Example for Grades 1-6

Name:________________________ Birth Date:____________________Age:__________________

Grade:__________School:_________________________Sex: ________Date:__________________

Play and Other Activities

1. What do you like to do in your free time?

2. What do you usually do after school?

   On the weekends?

3. What are your favorite games?

4. Do you like making things? If so, what?

5. What special tools or playthings do you have at home?

6. Is there a tool or plaything you wish you had? If so, what?

7. Do you have pets? If so, what?

8. Do you collect things? If so, what?

9. Do you take private lessons (piano, tennis, etc.)? If so, what?

10. If you could have 3 wishes, what would they be:

    A.

    B.

    C.

11. Did you ever wish you were someone else? If so, who?

12: Are you afraid of some things? If so, what?

13. About how many hours a day do you watch TV programs (or videos) during the week?

    On weekends?

14. What TV programs do you like?

15. About how many hours a day do you listen to the radio during the week?

At other times?

16. What type of radio programs do you like?

17. How often do you attend movies?

18. What movies have you liked?

19. Do you play with computers? If so, explain:

Reading

20. Do you like being read to? If so, explain:

21. Do you enjoy hearing a story told? If so, by whom?

22. Do you like to read? If so, what kind of reading?

23. Do you like comic books? If so, which ones?

24. Do you like magazines? If so, which ones?

25. Are there books or stories you especially like? If so, what ones and why?

26. Do you have books of your own? If so, about how many?

27. Do you use the school library? If so, about how often?

28. Do you use the public library? If so, about how often?

29. Which of the following do you enjoy, and are there special preferences?

    a. Reading
    b. Being read to
    c. Attending movies
    d. Listening to the radio
    e. Watching TV
    f. Participating in sports
    g. Playing computer games
    h. Other (playing piano, dancing, sewing, etc.)

Comments

Adapted from an inventory by Paul A. Witty, Robert Sizemore, Ann Coomer, and Paul Kinsella for use in Northwestern University – U.S. Office of Education Interest Inventory.

Informal Interest Inventory
Example for Grades 7 - 12

Name: ______________________________ Birth Date: ____________________________ Age: __________

Grade: ____________ School: _________________________________ Sex: ________ Date: ___________

Play and Other Activities

1. What do you like to do in your free time?

2. What do you do after school?

   In the evening?

   On weekends or vacations?

3. What are your favorite sports?

   Do you participate or mainly observe?

4. Do you like to make things? If so, what?

5. What tools do you have at home?

6. Do you have pets? If so, what?

7. Do you collect things? If so, what?

8. Do you take private lessons (piano, tennis, etc.)? If so, what?

9. Do you have any hobbies? If so, what?

10. If you could have one wish, what would it be?

11. Are you afraid of some things? If so, what?

Television, Radio, Movies, Music, Computers

12. About how many hours a day do you watch TV programs (or videos) during the week?

    On weekends?

13. What TV shows do you like?

14. About how many hours a day do you listen to the radio during the week?

    At other times?

15. How often do you attend movies?

16. What movies have you liked?

17. What singers do you like?

18. What musical groups do you like?

19. Do you enjoy computer games? If so, explain:

Reading

20. Do you like to read? If so, what kind of reading?

21. Are there any books you especially liked? If so, name them:

22. Do you enjoy hearing someone read or tell stories?

23. Do you use the school library? Often Seldom Never

24. Do you use the public library? Often Seldom Never

25. Do you have a library card?

26. Do you like comic books? If so, which ones?

27. Do you like magazines? If so, which ones?

28. Do you read newspapers? If so, what parts?

29. What kinds of reading do you enjoy (about animals, people, space travel, "how-to" books, etc.)?

Vocational and Educational Interests

30. What would you like to do after finishing school?

31. Is there anyone in television or the movies who does the type of work you would like to do? If so, who?

32. Have you done any reading pertaining to question 30? If so, what?

33. Do you like school?

34. What subject do you like best?

35. What subject do you like least?

36. In what subject do you get your best marks?

37. In what subject do you get poor marks?

38. Do you plan to go to college?

39. Has any member of your family been to college? If so, who?

40. Would you like to travel outside the United States? If so, where?

Adapted from an inventory by Paul A. Witty, Robert Sizemore, Ann Coomer, and Paul Kinsella for use in Northwestern University – U.S. Office of Education Interest Inventory.

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Dr. Newman's writings include longitudinal studies (19 years) of low group first and second graders, training manuals for remedial reading for learners at all levels, and books, films, and videos for adult literacy.

She has served as Chair of the National Coalition for Literacy, the Indiana Adult Literacy Coalition, and was recognized by the Indiana Humanities Council for Lifetime Achievement. Her mentoring of the Volunteers in Tutoring Adult Learners (VITAL), the local library literacy program, continues to serve hundreds of learners.

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